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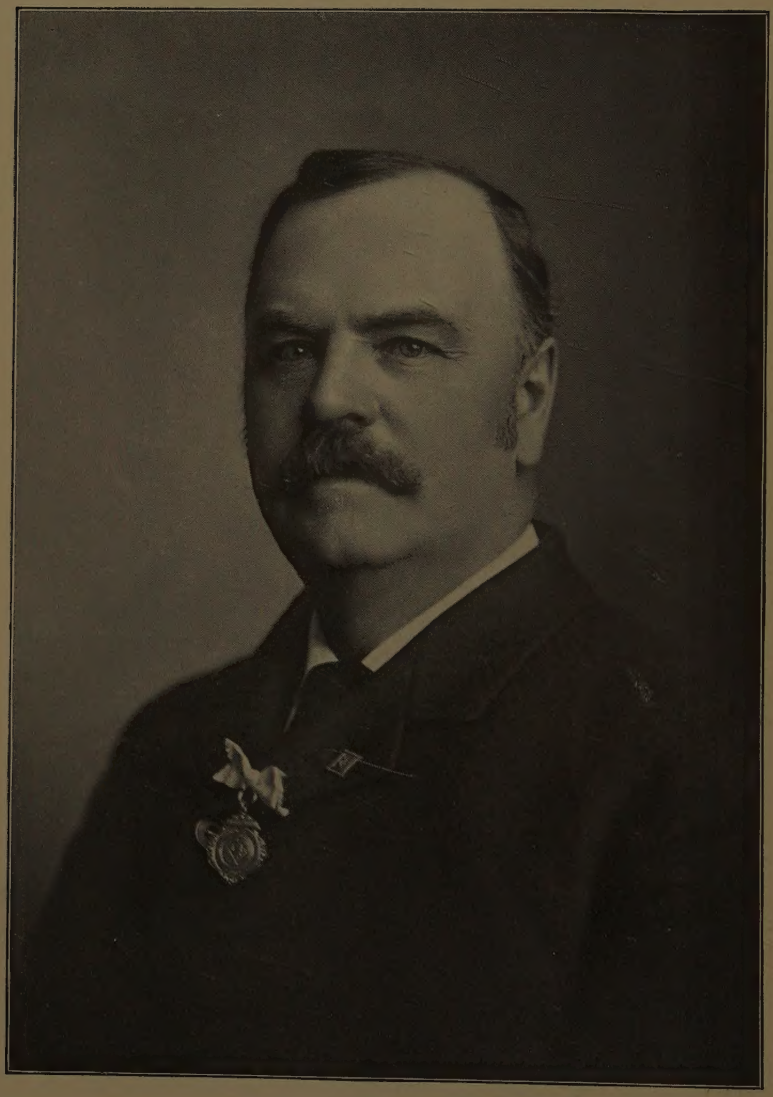

C. E. Faulkner

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

TWENTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN THE CITY OF TOPEKA, KAN., MAY 18–24, 1900

EDITED BY

ISABEL C. BARROWS

BOSTON, MASS.: GEORGE H. ELLIS, 272 CONGRESS STREET

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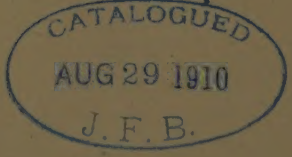

PREFACE.

The twenty-seventh meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Topeka, Kan., May 18 to 24, 1900, C. E. Faulkner, president. At the close of the sessions in Topeka, one meeting was held at the Soldiers' Home, Leavenworth. One forenoon during the week was devoted to a visit to the state prison at Lansing, and one afternoon to a visit to the government Indian training school at Lawrence.

A great many section meetings were held, which enlisted much attention and a good deal of discussion. The limits of the volume prevent the publication of those discussions, though several were reported in full; but most of the papers read before the different sections are included in the Proceedings, and are marked by an asterisk in the Table of Contents.

The Reports from States include reports from Canada, Mexico, and Cuba, as well as from nearly all of the states of this Union. It is very desirable that the southern states should make fuller reports of their charitable and correctional institutions; and the General Secretary, Mr. H. H. Hart, has renewed his efforts in this direction with much success this year, though many states are still to be heard from.

The section on reformatories has the lion's share in the present volume, necessarily involving some repetition in principles and methods; but these were so interwoven with descriptions of different institutions that it was not easy to condense them. The tendency is to give more space to preventive than to reformatory ideas, and much stress is laid on this in various parts of the book.

The manuscript of the interesting address on "Conditional Liberation," by Hon. W. E. Stanley, governor of Kansas, having

been delayed in transmission, the address could not be inserted in its proper place, but will be found in the chapter "Minutes and Discussions," page 408.

The next meeting of the Conference will be held in Washington, D.C., May, 1901, Mr. John M. Glenn, of Baltimore, President.

BOSTON, MASS., NOVEMBER, 1900.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PAGE

PORTRAIT, PRESIDENT C. E. FAULKNER.

PREFACE iii

TABLE OF CONTENTS v

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE OF 1901 . . . ix

STANDING COMMITTEES xi

RULES OF PROCEDURE xiii

I. PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

Twentieth Century Alignments for the Promotion of Social Order, by Hon. C. E. FAULKNER 1

II. CONFERENCE SERMON.

The Healing Touch, by Rev. F. H. WINES, LL.D. 10

III. POLITICS IN CHARITABLE AND CORRECTIONAL AFFAIRS.

Report of the Standing Committee, by FRANK WILSON BLACKMAR 27

The Essential Iniquity of the Spoils System, by PHILIP C. GARRETT 34

Discussion on Politics and Charities 414

IV. LOCKUPS, JAILS, AND WORKHOUSES.

Report of the Standing Committee, by C. L. STONAKER, J. J. McCOOK, CHARLTON T. LEWIS, LEVI L. BARBOUR, JAS. F. JACKSON, M. HEYMANN 44

The Management of Jails, by JAMES F. JACKSON 52

Jail Construction and Management, by C. M. FINCH 57

Discussion on Jails 433

V. PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES.

Report of the Standing Committee, by Major ROBERT W. McCLAUGHRY 65

Conditional Liberation, by Hon. W. E. STANLEY 408

VI. THE FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC.

Report of the Standing Committee, by F. M. POWELL, M.D. . . 70

Discussion on Care of Feeble-minded 424

VII. THE INSANE. PAGE

Public Policy in the Care of the Insane, by Rev. S. G. SMITH, D.D. 83
Improvements in Medical Care for the Insane, by B. D. EASTMAN, M.D. 89
State Care *versus* State Custody, by F. B. SANBORN 93
Discussion on Insanity 396

VIII. COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL CHARITIES.

Centralizing Tendencies in Administration, by HUGH F. FOX . 106
*Social Degeneration in Towns and Rural Districts, by F. W. BLACKMAR 115
*Poor-farms and Pauperism in Kansas, by W. L. A. JOHNSON . . 125
*Public or Private Outdoor Relief, by FREDERIC ALMY 134
*The Almshouse, by MARY VIDA CLARK 146
*Dwellings of the Poor in the Smaller Cities, by EMILY E. WILLIAMSON 159
Discussion on County and Municipal Charities 444

IX. STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

Report of the Standing Committee, by LEONTINE LINCOLN . . 167
The Board of Control of Iowa, by L. G. KINNE 173
State Boards of Charities, by SAMUEL G. SMITH 182
Discussion on State Boards 438

X. REFORMATORIES AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Twenty Years of Progress, by T. J. CHARLTON 188
*Civil Service Rules in State Institutions, by W. S. HANCOCK . . 195
*The Merit and Demerit System, by BARNARD L. OLDS . . . 200
Juvenile Delinquency and its General Treatment, by L. D. DRAKE 208
*Shall Superintendents employ and discharge Employees? by J. W. BROWN 211
*Industrial Employment as a Factor in the Reformation of Girls, by Mrs. L. N. DE BOLT 214
Co-operation of Superintendents of Reformatory Institutions, by E. P. WENTWORTH 220
Discussion on Reformatories 418

XI. DESTITUTE AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

Some Recent Developments in Child-saving, by GALEN A. MERRILL 226
*The State Public School Idea at its Best, by J. B. MONTGOMERY, 231
*Home-placing, by W. T. GARDNER 237
*The Place of the Kindergarten in Child-saving, by EVA HARDING 243

XII. ORGANIZATION OF CHARITY.

PAGE

Report of the Standing Committee, by C. S. GROUT 247
Outdoor Relief in Relation to Charity Organization, by GEORGE S. WILSON 256
*The Development of the Individual, by WILLIAM C. SMALLWOOD 265
*Charity Organization Principles applied to Mission Work, by C. N. POND 271
*Compulsory Education in its Relation to the Charity Problem, by PERRY N. HISER 277
Discussion on Charity Organization 401

XIII. REPORTS FROM STATES.

Report of the Committee 286
North Atlantic States 287
Southern States 288
Western States and Territories 290
Alabama, by Miss JULIA S. TUTWILER 292
Alaska, by Dr. SHELDON JACKSON 294
Arizona, by N. O. MURPHY 294
Arkansas, by GEORGE THORNBURG 295
Colorado, by M. C. T. LOVE, M.D. 295
Connecticut, by C. P. KELLOGG 299
Delaware, by E. P. WARNER 302
District of Columbia, by H. B. F. MACFARLAND 303
Florida, by J. A. HUGHES 304
Georgia, by Mrs. N. P. BLACK 305
Indiana, by A. W. BUTLER 305
Indian Territory, by E. H. RISHEL 308
Iowa, by L. G. KINNE 309
Kansas, by F. W. BLACKMAR 310
Kentucky, by Miss E. A. GALLAGHER 318
Louisiana, by M. HEYMANN 320
Maine, by Mrs. L. M. N. STEVENS 321
Maryland, by Miss KATE M. MCLANE 321
Massachusetts, by JOHN D. WELLS 324
Michigan, by L. C. STORRS 327
Minnesota, by JAMES F. JACKSON 327
Missouri, by Miss M. E. PERRY 329
Montana, by LAURA E. HOWEY 330
Nebraska, by A. W. CLARK 331
New Hampshire, by Mrs. M. H. VARICK 333
New Jersey, by Mrs. E. E. WILLIAMSON 337
New Mexico, by MARY J. BORDEN 339
New York, by HOMER FOLKS 339
North Carolina, by C. B. DENSON 346

PAGE

North Dakota, by B. H. BRASTED 349
Ohio, by J. P. BYERS 349
Oregon, by W. R. WALPOLE 352
Pennsylvania, by F. T. ATKINSON 353
Rhode Island, by H. B. GARDNER 354
South Carolina, by E. N. JOYNER 356
South Dakota, by W. B. SHERRARD 360
Texas, by R. C. BUCKNER 361
Utah, by GRACE M. PADDOCK 363
Vermont, by J. E. WRIGHT 364
Virginia, by W. F. DREWRY 364
West Virginia, by T. C. MILLER 366
Canada, by Mrs. WILLOUGHBY CUMMINGS 367
Cuba, by M. R. SUAREZ 374
Mexico, by PLUTARCO ORNELAS 379

XIV. MINUTES AND DISCUSSIONS.

Secretary's Report:—
First Session 389
Second Session 394
Third Session 401
Fourth Session 407
Fifth Session 407
Sixth Session 413
Seventh Session 418
Eighth Session 424
Ninth Session 433
Tenth Session 437
Eleventh Session 444
Session at the Soldiers' Home 447

TREASURER'S STATEMENT 453
LIST OF MEMBERS 456
ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE OF 1900 473
MEMBERS AND OFFICERS OF STATE BOARDS 477
INDEX OF WRITERS AND SPEAKERS 485
INDEX OF SUBJECTS 486

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. MEMBERSHIP.

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, which shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. OFFICERS.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six Secretaries, a Treasurer, and an Official Reporter and Editor, also a Corresponding Secretary for each state and territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. COMMITTEES.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, and all ex-Presidents *ex-officio*, and seven members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of seven on organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each state or territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day, for the purpose of receiving invitations from states, cities, or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of

meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The President shall be chairman, *ex officio*, of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in, and add to the numbers of, any committee except the Executive Committee.

The General Secretary shall be *ex-officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from the States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programmes, and shall direct the work of the Secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference. The President of the retiring Conference and the Official Editor and the General Secretary shall constitute a Publication Committee, and the work of editing shall be under the direction of the committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several states. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. The Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum, provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangments for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the Proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the programme, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer except by unanimous consent.

VI. Section Meetings.

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and distributed beforehand, that the entire meeting may be given to discussion. No afternoon meetings shall be inserted in the official programme.

VII. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. Amendments.

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

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I.

President's Address.

TWENTIETH CENTURY ALIGNMENTS FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL ORDER.

BY CHARLES E. FAULKNER.

We meet, good friends, in the reflective light of a closing century, to gather wisdom from experience and to discover duty in co-operation to promote social order, and thereby defeat the ills of chance which disturb the common welfare.

Our creed is exemplified by the need which perplexes faith, and appeals for an intelligent joining of effort to better the laws and social customs which measure the quality of our civilization. We believe that the blessings of fair birth, kind surroundings, and helpful opportunity, are essential to happiness, and that the sins of disorder which destroy a common inheritance in these blessings are the objective evils against which the forces of intelligent society should be aligned in defensive and offensive warfare.

We profess faith in some golden rule of conduct which teaches the obligation of fraternal concern. The rabbins said, "What is offensive to you, do not to another." Confucius taught, "What you do not like when done to yourself, do not to others." The Mosaic law declares, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." And, finally, Christ gave to the world a supreme example of a self-sacrificing personal service, defining charity as love, and teaching a gospel of fraternity. Thus we may conclude that the world has not lacked for the seed of knowledge or the inspiration of leadership. It has rather lacked in the orderly co-operation of its effective ministries, which are steadily, but too slowly and wastefully, moving the hand of progress in the uplift of the race forward upon the dial of time.

It is therefore fitting that, as we gather at this altar for a moment at the opening of our Conference, we should lay upon it all differences in religious, social, and political thought, all hope of preferment, or fear of censure, which may hinder righteous judgment, and take upon our consciences the distress of mind and body which scares away the happiness of our fellows, and builds wailing-places where courts of joy should abound. Let us remember that the charity which prevents human suffering is kinder than the charity which relieves it, and that, while the noble institutions created by society for the benefit of its weaker members are testimonials to benevolence and wise statesmanship, they are in a larger sense the sad witnesses of the neglect of the wiser charity, which would, in the fulfilment of God's purpose, render their existence unnecessary.

And thus as we stand upon this mount of reflection and look upon the flood of humanity pouring into the life of the world, and going out again with the ebb tide of death, bearing the scars of neglect and indifference, which betoken a failure in living, we may, without belittling the tasks we come here to study, be solemnly impressed with the duty of crying aloud to the multitude for the offerings of a charity of personal service and intelligent concern, without which the sacrificial offerings of worldly treasure will mock the calamity which they cannot stay. We must grasp in all its mighty significance the truth that the family is the unit of social order, and lend effort to the alignment of every helpful influence to insure blessings and protection to society through its family life. Hearthstones will become altars of praise to the goodness and glory of an infinite Creator and the salvation of mankind, when they are builded in the integrity of respect for the laws of creation and intelligent association. The preservation and exaltation of high ideals in family life depend in large measure upon education in the home and the school, and a wise conception of religious purpose, which seeks the moral improvement of individuals through necessary plans for their physical improvement. The home training of children in the knowledge of important physiological truths, under the discerning tact and patience of maternal and paternal love, is a charity of prevention worthy of all praise.

There must be text-books for the home as well as for the schools; and, if the latter are to escape the just criticism of so good an authority as Mr. Herbert Spencer, there must be a broader recog-

nition of the need and the remedy, as suggested by Mr. Spencer in the following language: "If by some strange chance not a vestige of us descended to the remote future save a pile of our school books or some college examination papers, we may imagine how puzzled an antiquary of the period would be on finding in them no indication that the learners were ever likely to be parents (or teachers). This must have been the curriculum for their celibates, we may fancy him concluding: I perceive here an elaborate preparation for many things, especially for reading the books of extinct nations (from which, indeed, it seems clear that these people had very little worth reading in their own tongue); but I find no reference whatever to the bringing up of children. They could not have been so absurd as to omit all training for this gravest of responsibilities. Evidently, then, this was the school course for one of their monastic orders."

The members of this Conference who attended the session at New Haven a few years ago, will have in mind the wise admonition of Professor Brewer of Yale College, who, in speaking to the Conference, said: "Thanks to modern science, charity, and humanity, we are saving everything that is unfit; and it is the greatest test that can be brought to bear upon our civilization. Once here, save them we must, for humanity's sake; but, as far as we can, let us cut off the supply at the fountain-head."

A fact which cannot be wisely blinked by students of social science is the constant moving together, under some law of congenial association, of the unfit classes to whom Professor Brewer refers; and against this tendency there should be opposed an orderly alignment of religious teaching, educational plan, and legal restraint, to hinder the increasing disorders of neglect. Whatever encouragement may come from the opening of college courses for the study of social problems and from the introduction of new text-books in the common schools, there should be no neglect of the use of passing opportunities to teach the vital truths of life in a simple gospel, to the comfort of people who are hungry for knowledge and willing to profit by the benevolence of wisdom. Thus, while the schools are discovering methods for the advancement of social order through education, and the scholarship of the universities is filtering its way downward to the needs of the masses as fast as the doors of understanding are opened, let there be an alignment of religious organiza-

tions in a co-operating ministry for the betterment of family life. Let there be a Sunday for the home, as well as a Sunday for the prison, when lectures general and special may be given upon subjects suited to the needs of family life, and the very unity of religious effort to improve the home be made to stir the current of social thought to a purpose of action.

The exigencies of need for the co-operation of religious, social, and political organizations to improve the conditions of marriage, lessen the disasters of divorce and abandonment, and conserve the values of integrity and industry, appeal with great force for their alignment upon such a platform as may be offered by the national and state conferences of charities and correction.

Such an appeal addresses itself not alone to the pulpit, the social circle, and the political rostrum, but also with peculiar propriety claims the attention of the press. None can measure the effect wrought upon the living of a people through the influence of this millioned-tongued missionary, whose energies never flag, whose office is never closed, and whose potential leadership in the march of progress converts years into hours. The press lays the forces of intelligent motion under contribution to its need, that it may bear swift message from people to people, heralding tidings of joy and sorrow, hope and despair, picturing life in all its unrest, and displaying its promises for good or for evil. It is the pulse of community life, and in its best estate offices the duties of messenger and teacher, holding in trust a conscientious purpose to lend itself to the promotion of truth and justice. A tremendous personal responsibility and accountability rest upon the managers of the press. They are building wisely or foolishly to the improvement or injury of the race. White newspapers advance the interests of social order through a discretion of good conscience in publishing the news. They are welcome guests in the homes where anxious fathers and mothers watch the reading of the young life within. Untainted by the lust of greed which prostitutes opportunity and robs hope, the clean newspaper is an unlimited power for good.

Yellow newspapers pander to the morbid taste of the corrupt in heart. Thriving best in the congenial filth augmented by their aid, they are enemies to social order, and consistent object-lessons of ingratitude to the toleration of public sentiment. May God speed the charity of prevention through the white newspaper, and hinder the disorder promoted by its unworthy yellow competitor!

Successful alignments of active agencies of society for the promotion of social order presuppose organization, and present a number of questions concerning procedure which may not be discussed aside from their surroundings. It may fairly be assumed, however, that a discussion of the policies of law and custom which deal with the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes of society in a state, may best be studied within the jurisdiction affected by them, where success or failure may be carefully observed, and proper remedies afforded. This view supports the need of a conference school of charities and correction within each municipal division which exercises a supreme legislative power over the subjects studied.

The membership of such a conference should comprise those who by reason of official position are responsible for the administration of measures of relief or prevention, and also the accredited representatives from all religious and secular organizations which are to be depended upon for co-operation in effort to attain the benefits sought. Thus, without becoming unwieldy, such a conference would be a representative body, equipped for the fair study of the ailments set before it in the statistical returns presented, under favoring circumstances, which would inspire confidence in the results of its deliberations. The delegates commissioned by the co-operating associations would report their observations to their respective societies, and thus there would be developed an intelligent and effective sympathy, which would find substantial and helpful expression.

The greatest honors which have crowned the history of the National Conference of Charities and Correction have resulted from its influence in promoting wise methods for the public management of charities and corrections, and in encouraging the organization of the much-needed state conferences. During the past twenty-five years the greatest advances made in the adoption of wise legislation to conserve the interests of justice and benevolence have been thought out and wrought out in the studies encouraged by these conferences. The States which have made these advances, and whose banners are the emblems of the greatest victories over error and indifference in public affairs, are those which have aligned themselves with the plans and purposes of the national and state conferences of charities and correction.

The proper alignment of the State as a political entity in the task

of promoting social order is discussed in the address of the President of the twenty-fifth session of this Conference, under the text,— "The Duty of the State to the Erring and Dependent." The sound position is taken that "the organic law of every state should explicitly acknowledge the obligation of its people to make provision for the destitute, insane, idiotic, feeble-minded, deformed, and epileptic, and the delinquent or criminal." The speaker urged that the state owes no higher duty than the protection of its citizenship from the dangers and pollution incident to the unrestrained commingling of these defectives with the people generally; nor is there a greater evil than the increase of their kind.

Wise public policy requires that for these unfortunates uniform and suitable custodial care or restraint should be provided by the State.

The destitute blind and deaf, whose education, by reason of their deprivation of a sense, is rendered difficult and expensive, should also be maintained and educated by the state, in order that they may by early training and instruction become self-supporting and intelligent citizens. It will be observed that the speaker does not regard the duty of the state completely discharged through the benevolence of a passive charity of relief. On the other hand, he accounts it an equal duty of the state, representing the guardian power of society for its own defence and improvement, to hinder misfortune by an aggressive charity of prevention.

This position is ably supported in the address of the President of the twenty-sixth session of this Conference, who in the résumé and conclusion of an exhaustive and scholarly address on the "Relation of Philanthropy to Social Order and Progress" makes the following observation: "In all our institutions of charity and correction we are employing, more or less consciously and intelligently, two principal instruments or methods. We are educating the educable; and we are seeking to eliminate, as far as possible, the depressing influence and propagation of those who cannot be fitted for competitive life." The same speaker also observes that, when society is duly impressed with the moral obligation to foster the health and happiness of posterity, we may hope for changes in customs, habits, and treatment of the inefficient, and that, beginning with the families of highest character, we may hope to see more studious attention to the inexorable laws of heredity and the duty of self-denial for the common welfare.

It is well to declare a just appreciation of the power of education and religious training in all which contributes to the welfare of the race, and also to recognize in all proper measure the sacred and inalienable rights of individual choice in every reasonable degree.

When the schools shall provide the text-books demanded by the needs of an improving civilization, and when the officers of religion shall set themselves to the task of building anew the marriage altars which shall frown upon the marriage of the unfit, the millennium of race perfection will not seem so far away. But neither school nor church will suffice to correct the evils against which mankind has been so long contending unless there be a wise co-operation of the social power represented in the name of the state.

There has been too much of sophistical reasoning concerning the right of individual members of society to act their own pleasure in those matters of choice and conduct which bear upon the welfare of others. The law of self-preservation is as vital to the insurance of good to society as to the individual; and, in matters to be determined from the reason of experience, the presumption of wisdom and justice rests in larger measure with the findings of society than with the desire and conscience of the individual. As society takes its rating of value to the individual through its insurance to him of the benefits and protection which lie beyond his control, so does the value of the individual to society depend upon the manner and degree of his support of the common obligation to redeem the guarantees of social membership.

The bond of society is the fidelity of its members to the requirements of a charity which will prevent human suffering as well as relieve it, and which in its ministry of love has been moulding the world through centuries of time to the ideals of a civilization which shall contain within itself the inspiration to improvement.

If there be a duty to write obligations in the constitutions of states, to assure public benevolence to the victims of social disorder, there is, within a fair interpretation of such duty a corresponding obligation to discover and remove the cause of the injury.

That state builds wisely which cultivates the habit of public concern over the quality of its citizenship. The degeneracy which saps the foundation of moral and physical health should not be permitted to perpetuate itself to the harm of the general good. Waiving aside all mere questions of sentiment, it is the plain duty of the state to

place in custodial care every citizen whose condition of mind and body leaves no room for doubt that such a disposition is indicated by the welfare of society. Thanks to modern science, the humane methods which have obtained in the public administration of charity and correction have modified prejudice by presenting in the equipment and management of the institutions designed for the care of the unfortunate classes of society more of the promise of successful treatment and approved comfort than may be afforded by other means. The public conscience is being aroused as never before to the duty of protecting the wards of its benevolence from the ills of chance incident to political change; and states are slowly, but surely aligning their policies of law and practice in these affairs with the requirements of the new philanthropy, which demands consistency as a rule of public conduct.

Many of the higher institutions of learning are giving a place to the study of the questions which are the particular concern of a practical tax-paying public, and give promise of a more intelligent diffusion of interest in the circles of religious, social, and political life. May there not be a hope that equal interest will soon be manifested in the teachers' associations and the official organizations which represent the cause of the common school? If, as a wise philosopher has said, "the way to make a child better is to begin with his grandfather," the education of the grandfathers should begin at an age when they are susceptible to impression.

The disposition of the religious elements of society point to the realization of closer alignments in many fields of common purpose, encouraging unity in effort and conserving the potencies of energy and means for the redemption of mankind from error. Can there be a better platform for the exchange of greetings of fraternity, and the wise alignment of the influences of religion in steadfast purpose to defeat evil and promote good, than is offered by the national and state conferences of charities and correction?

The state of Kansas has honored this Conference with invitations to meet within its borders, extended through its legislature and governor. We are here in response to those invitations, not as teachers, but as fellow-students in the common school of philanthropy.

There will be something of benefit to leave and much of good to take away. It will have been a pleasure to many to have held fellowship for a few delightful days with the people of a state which

has entertained Fortune in all her moods, and which enjoys so fair a record of leadership in martial and civic contest to preserve liberty and ennoble manhood. But the greatest pleasure and the greatest honor which the people of the State of Kansas can confer upon the representatives of the National Conference of Charities and Correction here assembled will be through the organization of the Kansas state conference of charities and correction for the more thorough study of the means of co-operation to lessen distress by the promotion of social order. Let us hope that this may be done, and well done, and that such a conference may be so dedicated to the service of a pure and disinterested philanthropy that it will command the immediate support of good citizens of every creed and party.

During the century which is closing, society has been too content with an exhibition of duty in the material support of a charity of relief. Its prayers, tears, smiles, and treasure have been lavishly bestowed to heal the sick, bind the wounds of the afflicted, and comfort the despondent and broken-hearted. It has lived too much within the shadows of its own neglect of the charity of prevention, which is the sum of hope for the redemption of mankind from the misery of disorder. Neglecting no duty to the cause of charity or correction, let us engage in more earnest effort to prevent the causes of distress which oppress humanity, and strive for the co-operation which alone can set mankind at peace with the conditions of happiness.

II.

Conference Sermon.

THE HEALING TOUCH.

BY F. H. WINES, LL.D.

"And he put forth his hand, and touched him."—MATT. viii. 3.

The two hardest tasks that a man can set himself are to be good and to do good. To be good involves victory over self, but to do good is to triumph over an opposing world. What so-called charity worker not a novice will hesitate to confess that his successes have been few and partial in comparison with the multitude and completeness of his failures?

Of the reasons why this should be so, many inhere in the constitution of human society and in the nature of the material with which we have to deal; but it is not of these that I propose to speak to-day. Rather let me emphasize the thought that the difficulty lies, in part at least, with ourselves, and that it may be due to the disproportionate importance which we attach to methods of work, in contradistinction to the altruistic spirit which alone imparts to all benevolent work its vitality and its power.

Every man needs — may I not say that every man has? — an ideal, which shapes his life and is the hidden spring of his activities. It may be predominantly selfish or unselfish, noble or base, practical or visionary; but those who know him best can divine his ideals by studying his career.

It is to me a mystery why any man should imagine that there is an essential antagonism between the ideal and the actual or between the ideal and the practical. There are, of course, impracticable ideals. But the ideal is to the practical what the soul is to the body, what thought is to speech, what the plan of a house is to the house itself, what the germ concealed in the acorn is to the giant oak, the

hero of a thousand storms. The ideal precedes the actual, it underlies it, it explains it. The idealist is a creator: the actual is his handiwork. To be able to apprehend the invisible is the glory of the artist, the inventor, the poet, the prophet. Jesus Christ was an idealist. The exhibition of his ideals to a sordid world won for him the crown of martyrdom, but such was their spiritual truth and beauty that the grave could not hold him.

The Christian ideal, the highest form of the universal religious ideal, is the theme of my message upon this occasion. With all my heart I rejoice in the opportunity to utter it, as, perhaps, the final outcome of a lifetime spent in the effort to uplift humanity, in association with the men and women whom I see before me, and with many others imbued with similar convictions and sentiments; yet I dread the responsibility of failure to speak it rightly. If any one will receive it, it will

> . . , "Teach him to attain
> By shadowing forth the Unattainable,
> And step by step to scale that mighty stair
> Whose landing-place is wrapt about with clouds
> Of glory of heaven."

You will observe that in the healing of the leper the putting forth of the Saviour's hand was merely a symbolic action. To suppose that the healing power lay in the touch savors of superstition, and is as absurd as it would be to think that the power that produces the electric light resides not in the dynamo, but in a rubber button. The deep significance of the gesture may nevertheless be inferred from the frequency of its repetition in the ministration of our Lord. Jesus took Peter's wife's mother by the hand, and her fever left her. He touched the eyes of two blind men sitting by the wayside, and immediately they received their sight. He touched the tongue of the deaf-mute of Decapolis, and straightway his ears were opened, the string of his tongue was loosed, and he spake plainly. On his way to the judgment-seat of Caiaphas he touched the ear of the high priest's servant, when it had been smitten off by the sword of an over-zealous disciple, and the wound was healed. In each instance a word would have sufficed, but to the word the touch was added. Why was this? The answer to this question is the lesson of the hour.

Science cannot supply the answer. Science is the noblest of all

God's handmaidens save two. She is the servant of truth, obedient to truth not because of purchase or conquest, but by her own free gift,— loyal to truth in the spirit not of a slave, but of a child. Science seeks for truth as for hid treasure, in the depths of the earth and sea, in the sky with its trailing splendors, in the distant stars. She would fearlessly enter hell itself and bring truth thence, could she but find the way. Science has torn the veil from Nature's face. She has annihilated distance, has girdled the earth with light and sound as with a garment, has filled it with conveniences and comforts, has made it habitable. She has given unity to the world and its inhabitants, has multiplied human wealth a hundred-fold, and prolonged the average duration of human life. Without the discoveries and inventions of science, modern civilization could not have emerged from the womb of Time. Great as these achievements are, they pale into insignificance in comparison with the service that she has rendered to mankind in promoting the emancipation of the human intellect from chains of superstition, from the tyranny of priestcraft and kingcraft.

But Science is not Art, neither is she Religion. I mean no disparagement to the intellectual acumen and moral integrity of her devotees when I say that, despite her rank and power, Science has her limitations. She beholds the universe with the natural eye, not with the eye of faith. She has not the spiritual insight of the poet nor the profound mental grasp of the philosopher. She turns her back upon the unseen, in order that she may concentrate her gaze upon the visible and the tangible. She touches life on its material, not on its immaterial side. She is more masculine than feminine, more earthly than heavenly, more human than divine.

From this point of view the phrase "scientific charity" does not appeal to me so strongly as to some of you. The adjective in this phrase seems to belittle the meaning of the noun, and to detract from its beauty and force. It suggests an effort to shrink the diameter of the sun's orbit to that of one of the planets.

For the limitations of Science there are two correctives,— imagination and sentiment. Without the aid of the imagination, Science could not have attained her boldest flights. She must create hypotheses, unproved and unprovable. She must take some things for granted. She must guess where she does not know, and wait to see whether later observations will confirm or overthrow her hypothetic

assumptions. The greatest names in the history of scientific thought are those of men who have dared to speculate about origins and tendencies, about the infinite and unattainable past and the infinite and mysterious future. They have imagined, not demonstrated, their broadest generalizations. But, while Science tolerates imagination, she is disposed to scorn sentiment, not knowing, apparently, that there is a logic, not of the intellect, but of the heart, whose laws no man has attempted to formulate, and perhaps only a woman is capable of divining them, yet whose normal processes lead as surely to truth as the slower, clumsier processes of reason. Contempt for intuition is her fundamental error, the weakness of her controversial position and attitude.

To understand what Jesus meant when he touched the leper, we need to invoke the aid of imagination and sentiment, the two wings of the soul, without whose sustaining power the soul can neither mount out of sight like the lark nor poise as if afloat in mid-ether like the eagle. "He put forth his hand, and touched him." This is not a scientific fact. Its truth cannot be subjected to any scientific test. It suggests no scientific generalization. Yet the action in its relation to the result is so luminous with suggestion that one must be spiritually blind not to feel it.

The thought of which the Divine Healer's touch was the expression is the power of love as the supreme remedy for sin and human wretchedness. The ideal of Jesus was love,— love in the heart of God for men as his children, love on the part of men for God as their Father, and mutual love and good will between men as brethren. The actual world, as he saw it, was the world which we see; but he saw in imagination a new heaven and a new earth, an ideal world, a world of love, of perfect love, and therefore a world in which righteousness should be the rule of life, and not its exception. He looked upon the struggle for existence, in which the strongest survive,— for the living organisms, vegetable and animal, which we have learned to call "fit," are merely such as are relatively stronger, because of their adaptation to their environment, than others with which they come into competition,— and he saw that the application of this natural law to mankind is the source of discord and strife abhorrent to his gentle nature and shocking to the spiritual sense. He therefore proclaimed the higher law of self-sacrifice for the sake of others. The observance of the higher law

can alone restore the lost harmony of Paradise. "Resist not evil." "Put up the sword." "Let the tares grow with the wheat." "Forgive until seventy times seven." "Love your enemies." Strife is the result of individualism, self-assertion, self-seeking,— of the exaltation of the individual above the mass. The antidote to strife is the sense of the solidarity of the human race and of the mutual interdependence of its units, of the obligation of the individual to the social whole, and especially of the obligation resting upon the strong to bear the burdens of the weak. I say that this was Christ's ideal. But it was more than that. It was the rule of his own life. The picture drawn for us in the Gospels is that of a God descending to earth from heaven, that he might in human flesh take upon himself the load of human agony, and by dying expiate the sin of the world. No created or uncreated intelligence could conceive a loftier ideal of self-sacrifice; and this conception, wrought into human consciousness, has touched the hearts of men and affected the course of history.

When we look backward and endeavor to trace the evolution of our modern civilization, we discover two parallel lines of movement. The march of events has been characterized, on the one hand, by the advance of intelligence, producing results whose material aspects possibly strike the imagination with greater force; but they are really of less value to the race than the gradual substitution of the principle of self-control for that of submission to extraneous authority, thus preparing the way for a larger measure of civil and religious liberty. On the other hand, the growth of intelligence and its more general diffusion have been attended by a corresponding diminution of brutality. No doubt this is partially explainable on the theory of the subjection of the animal to the intellectual nature in man and the substitution of the appeal to reason for the appeal to fear. But it means also that the intellectual element in human thought is coming more and more into right relation with human affection, that there has been a normal development of the sentiments which do honor to human nature,— justice, sympathy, pity, moral obligation, and the like. Give credit for the one to Science, if you will, but allow Religion her fair share of credit for the other.

The Bible seems to be regarded by many as a book about another world, of which we know nothing and can know no more

than we are willing to accept on trust, therefore possessing little claim upon the time and attention of men who have anything of consequence to do. The Bible seems, to those who take this view of it, to contain a body of mystical opinions, founded upon a more or less mythical history, which ecclesiastics serve up to religious enthusiasts in the form of undemonstrable theological systems. I do not deny that the Bible, apprehended by faith, sheds light upon the origin, nature, and destiny of the human race; nor that it contains a theology the formulation of which has enlisted the energies of some of the greatest intellects that the world has known. But I hold that the Bible is also a book for this world, and that it contains a sociology, or theory of human relations, equally worthy of systematic development and presentation. The fundamental principle of the biblical sociology is the ideal of Jesus, the universal reign on earth of love, in opposition to war, as war is generally understood; namely, to armed conflict between men upon the battlefield, and no less to other forms of mutually destructive conflict in trade and commerce and in other walks of social life. The pessimism of Science in relation to man stands out in marked contrast with the optimism of Religion on the same subject. This is the more remarkable because Science has taught us that man can to a limited extent control and utilize the forces of nature by giving them a different direction or by bringing one force to bear in a way to neutralize the operation of another. What Science tells us we can do with nature, Religion insists may also be done with human nature. The power which she has placed at our disposal for this purpose is love. Jesus, in the Sermon on the Mount, which all praise and few believe, said expressly that evil can be overcome with good. Such experience as we have had with the application of his principle confirms the literal, I might almost say the scientific, truth of his declaration.

Love as a power in the moral order is the analogue, shall I say? of the power of gravitation in the physical universe. The attraction of gravitation is the force which regulates the movements of the stars, and indirectly determines the times and seasons of all physical changes and events. Love is attraction,— not the attraction of the senses, passion, or lust, but of the mind and heart. It may be from the sympathy of admiration, affection, congeniality, or it may be from the sympathy of pity, compassion, a desire to help one in need of help. But the heart of one who loves always goes

out toward the object of affection. The other element in love is exchange of service or benefits, which may be compared to the conversion of one form of motion into another, as when heat is transformed into light or light into sound. Love is never wasted. The doctrine of the conservation of physical energy is susceptible of spiritual translation, and it may be applied to ethical relations. Indeed, I think that the man or woman who does not apprehend the true place of affection in human society, its untried capabilities, as well as its tested efficiency, is as far from having arrived at the truth in ethics as would be an astronomer from having grasped the central principle of physics, who should reject the Copernican and cling to the exploded Ptolemaic theory of the solar system.

It is not easy to express sentiment in words. The natural language of sentiment is poetry. It eludes scientific expression. Yet the power of love as a remedial agent is capable of experimental proof. We know nothing in a scientific sense of origins, the origin of life, the origin of sex, nor even whether matter is created or eternal. The nebular hypothesis and the Darwinian hypothesis are both speculations, useful as an aid to thought, but not conclusive. Ignorant of the origin of matter, we are equally ignorant of the origin and nature of energy. We conceive of sound, heat, light, and electricity as modes of motion; but the belief to which some scientists lean, that human thought and sensibility are also modes of motion, appears to be open to the serious objection that this theory fails to account for all the facts in the case. What is love? Where is its seat? "God is love." In those three words you will find deeper meaning than in all the writings of the psycho-physiologists. Love has its seat in the bosom of Him who is the Father of light and life and love, the Father of spirits, the Father of us all. Like the other attributes of Deity, it is infinite, unchangeable, everlasting. The same power which prevents the physical universe from falling together or from dissipating itself in space, the power which organized it, sustains it, keeps it in perpetual motion, guides it, governs it, is the fountain and source of love, which flows from the throne of God through all the channels of human affection in its varied forms. In the person of Christ the infinite love of God was made manifest to the world. It was love which brought him to our earth, love which drew him to the poor leper at the foot of the mountain, love which impelled him to put forth his hand and touch

him, love which passed in that touch, as an electric spark passes when an electrical contact is effected; and the miracle of healing wrought in the leper's body was a miracle of love, more wonderful, but no less real, no less natural, no less in conformity with natural law, than when a girl puts her finger upon the end of a lever and cables a message across the sea.

When such a message is sent, what happens? What are the conditions which must be fulfilled? First, there must be power, a reservoir of power, from which to supply the necessary electric current. This power is not in the apparatus nor in the operator, but in the battery. Then there must be an operator to connect the apparatus with the source of energy. Finally, there must be contact of two electric points to complete the circuit, without which the power is inert and the operator useless.

What Jesus did to the leper happens in every instance in which spiritual healing occurs through human agency. He said to his disciples, "Greater things than these shall ye do." The healing power is not in us, but in God. Nevertheless, God works through men. The man who lays hold of God with one hand and of his fellow-men with the other exerts a power for good incommensurate with his individual insignificance in the economy of nature. But he accomplishes nothing unless he touches in some way the individual whom he influences. Love is the power, man the instrument, and contact the condition or method. The combination of these three accomplishes the result. The hand put forth to bless and to save must be met by the hand outstretched to receive the blessing. Thus it is written of the woman with an issue of blood that she touched the hem of the Saviour's garment, whereupon he immediately turned himself about and said, "Who touched me? for I perceive that virtue is gone out of me."

Let me illustrate this principle by the experience of workers in different lines of benevolent effort.

Degeneracy, in the great majority of instances, assumes one of three leading forms; namely, insanity, crime, or pauperism. Take first the case of the insane, including under this general title all forms of nervous disease or defect and of mental alienation or imbecility. Insanity is a physical disease. As such, it demands medical treatment. You may say that there is no sentiment in rest and exercise and nutrition, nor in tonics, hypnotics, and all the other drugs listed in the

pharmacopœia. Why, no. But it is love which prompts their administration to the sufferer. Had the physician or the patient's friends no sympathy for his agony, they would abandon him to his wretched fate. It is the common fellow-feeling for suffering humanity which created our magnificent public hospitals and asylums for the insane and the epileptic, our institutions for the care of the idiotic and feeble-minded, and which insures cheerful payment of the taxes imposed to meet this enormous expense. They are the work of God, the God of love, who works by love, and who has made man in his own image, communicating to our humanity something of his own divinity. Let us go a step farther. Grant that physical treatment is addressed to the body, in the hope that it may react upon the disordered mind, as it does. Is it not equally true that the wise and successful alienist seeks to influence the mind of his patient, and that moral treatment, skilfully applied, reacts upon the diseased body? There are cases of insanity in which it is not possible to reach the mind of the patient because of the character and extent of the disorganization or functional disturbance of the brain, and physical treatment is the first necessity. There are other cases in which, if the mental delusions could be successfully combated, the wayward impulses controlled or diverted, the patient would recover without the aid of medicine. In the great majority of cases, medical and moral treatment must go hand in hand. "These things ought ye to do, and not to leave the other undone." It is hard to overestimate the importance of meeting the insane mind half-way or more than half-way. There is probably not a mental delusion, not an incoherent or foolish expression, which is not pregnant with meaning, could we but interpret it aright: and the comparative study of the mental manifestations of insanity may in the distant future enable an expert to deduce from them the physical and mental history of the sufferer, as a comparative anatomist can reconstruct the entire body of an extinct animal from a single bone. But what patience, what devotion, what sympathy,— in a word, what love,— that expectation implies! It is love which gives insight into the operations of the insane mind,— love which never tires, is never discouraged, which cannot be so disgusted or irritated by anything that the lunatic or idiot can say or do as to be turned aside from the effort to soothe his pain, awaken his hope, and restore him to rational self-consciousness and self-control. For the recovery of the lunatic his soul must be reached and touched.

Until this is accomplished, nothing is done. The touch must be the touch of love, the touch of an individual upon an individual, prolonged and repeated contact of soul with soul. Indifference, brutality, neglect, purely routine treatment, are fatal in their effect upon the patient. He must be individualized. He must be made to feel that he is personally loved, or he cannot be cured.

Much of what has just been said applies also to the criminal. The mental vision of the criminal, like that of the lunatic, is distorted. He distinguishes with difficulty, if at all, between right and wrong. He calls good evil, and says to evil, Be thou my good. He lives in the present moment. The past fades from his mind like a dream; and the future, at least the far-off future, is to him as if it did not exist. Experience, therefore, teaches him nothing; and his aspirations after a higher life are fitful and evanescent as the shadow of a cloud passing over a waving field of grain. He is an incapable, and as such merits our pity rather than our scorn. He is a pervert. He is a sinner, but also one who has been deeply sinned against. Is he irreclaimable? Not at all. But he can be redeemed only by love.

What to do with the criminal or with the criminally disposed boy or girl is a question which has perplexed statesmen as well as philanthropists. Everything has been tried. Mind, I do not say tried in vain. The one thing that never yet helped him, and never will, is to hang him. Killing a fellow-man, with or without judge and jury, is the expression of hate, not love, and the outgrowth, not of hope, but of despair. Intimidation is little better. Retribution, in the sense of justice, is beyond our power, and had better be left to God or, if you like the expression better, to the order of nature, whose fundamental law is that action and reaction are equal and contrary. The only thing that remains is to reform him. But how? He does not want to be reformed. He feels no need of change. He prefers to remain as he is. We have tried reforming him, in prison and out of prison. We have tried severity, and we have tried kindness. We have given him work to do, and we have deprived him of work. We have preached at him. We have tried educating him — by the old method, the imparting of knowledge to the brain with the aid of books, and by the new, reaching the brain through the hand by the use of tools. We have drilled him in the manual of arms. We have developed him physically,

by light and heavy gymnastics, by electric and steam baths, by diet and by massage. We have rewarded him. We have punished him. What more can we do to him? And still he remains a cake unturned, raw dough on one side, burned charcoal on the other; and the criminal, like the poor, is always with us. Of what use are all our prison systems? What difference does it make whether we have strictly cellular confinement in the prison or whether we resort to confinement in association? whether we allow or prohibit conversation between prisoners? whether we grade them or do not grade them? whether their sentence is definite or indefinite, determinate or indeterminate? whether they are paroled or not paroled? None of these things ever reformed or will or can reform a prisoner. The prisoner may not be a criminal, and may not need reforming. A prison system may be so bad in itself, or so badly administered, as to make criminals out of men who are not criminals. If so, it is because of its stupidity and brutality. Unquestionably, one system is better than another, because more in harmony with the divinely implanted laws of human nature; and therefore it yields better results. But the conclusion at which I have arrived, after a life spent in observing the operation and effect of all conceivable prison systems, is that in all of them, the best and the worst alike, the men who are saved are saved by love, and by nothing else. The one thing essential to their salvation is the healing touch. Love is not weakness: it is power. Some of its highest manifestations assume the outward form of severity, as the surgeon gives pain when he uses the knife. He must give pain. He hurts to heal. The pain is inevitable, but it is love which inflicts it. If inflicted for any other reason, it does harm. The prisoner must know and feel that love is the motive of the discipline to which he is subjected, love which binds up the wound that love has made. Some one in the prison — the warden, the physician, the chaplain, or the guard — must find the way to make him believe that the official touch is the divine human touch, the same which Jesus bestowed upon the leper. To that he will respond when he will respond to nothing else.

I have formulated for my personal use a simple rule for judging officials in charge of criminals and of the insane, by which to grade them from the highest to the lowest in the scale of capacity and efficiency. If I can estimate aright the degree of fear felt by them

of the men and women under them, I know where to place them. There are many ways of determining this. It is apparent in the architectural construction of an institution for the insane, in its regulations, in the look and manner of the patients, in the extent to which mechanical restraints are employed in it, in the number of barred windows and locked doors, in the degree of freedom allowed in the house and in the grounds. In a prison it is shown in the use of striped clothes and the lock-step, in the number and character of the punishments, in the privileges granted, in the cheerful or sullen demeanor of the men, in the percentage of insanity and suicide. The point of this observation is that fear and love are opposites, and that "perfect love casteth out fear." Where fear is in the heart of the officer in charge, love is not; and, where love is absent, there is no healing touch; therefore few recoveries from insanity or crime, whatever may be said to the contrary in the statistical tables published in an annual report.

The National Conference of Charities was originally to a much greater extent than now an official body. With the advent of a proportionally larger number of representatives of private charities, especially of younger men and women representing the work of the associated charities, questions pertaining to methods of relief and prevention of pauperism have naturally occupied more of our time and attention. Nowhere is the personal touch more needed than in the care of the poor. This conviction led to the movement which has received the name of "organized charity," and it is the mainspring of its vitality. Its originators were animated by two leading thoughts: first, that almsgiving by proxy, while it may be an effective means of alleviating the physical distress due to extreme poverty, has proved almost a complete failure as a means of lifting the poor man out of his poverty; and, second, that no system of almsgiving, individual or organized, can accomplish this result without the intervention of the so-called "friendly visitor." These principles were elaborated into a system known as "the new charity," which is a misnomer, since they are not new. The movement had two distinct aims, one positive, the other negative. It sought to render imposture on the part of professional beggars more difficult, by registration of the relief granted by all charitable organizations in a given community; and for this purpose it devised a scheme of central

records, somewhat complicated perhaps, but useful where a real demand for it exists and where it can be carried into practical effect. On the other hand, it sought to abolish the middleman in charity, and to bring the giver and the recipient of relief into personal relation with each other. These were excellent aims. They have been only partially realized. Correct theories are not always susceptible of practical application. One of the serious difficulties in the way of their realization is the impossibility in many places, particularly if of small size, with few poor persons having a claim to relief, of maintaining an organization which does not combine almsgiving with its other functions. The consequence has been that many so-called charity organization societies have become, or tend to become, nothing more than old-fashioned relief associations; for we must not forget that the provident associations organized years ago started out with substantially the same ideals now upheld by the associated charities. The same causes which diverted them from their theoretical aims are likely to produce similar results in the case of the new associations. The only safeguard against this outcome of the movement is the acceptance of the doctrine which I proclaim this day and a strict adherence to it as the rule of the order; namely, that not the alleviation of poverty, but its cure, is the ideal of organized charity, and that this cannot be made actual, even to a limited extent, without the aid of the friendly visitor.

The friendly visitor, whether a member of an organization, benevolent or ecclesiastic, or a volunteer working on his or her own account, is the channel through which the power of love in the heart of God for all his children, most of all for his suffering children, is exerted for the uplifting of the poor. Without the touch of the friendly visitor the most that can be done for a man or woman in danger of sinking to the level of a chronic pauper is to palliate his suffering for the moment. The relief given him is more likely to be material than spiritual, and at best it is but temporary. Material aid does not reach the sore spot. Pauperism is allied to insanity on one side and to crime on the other. Insanity is a mental, but crime a spiritual, malady. The most brilliant sceptic that America has produced once expressed the wish that God had made health as contagious as disease. Mental and spiritual health are contagious, but not without contact of the healthy with the unhealthy mind.

Mental contact is not sufficient. The touch must be that of the heart, the soul. A friendly visitor who becomes such from any other motive than love is disqualified for the work he has to do. The more difficult the case in hand, the greater must be the output of the power of love, wearing a way to the heart of the tired, discouraged imbecile whose cure he has undertaken,— love immeasurable, unwearied, ever fresh, equal to every demand upon it. When the supply is in peril of exhaustion, let the visitor call upon God for a new supply.

I need not, I think, carry the illustration of the healing touch into other departments of charitable work, into child-saving, for instance. Love in the family would render half the work in that direction needless. It is the unloved child, usually, who goes astray, or else the child who is the object of a mistaken, counterfeit affection, assuming the form of indulgence unmodified by proper parental restraint.

To avoid misconception, let me add that love needs always to be supplemented by knowledge. The combination of knowledge with love, or of the conclusions of the reason with the intuitions of the heart, constitutes wisdom, a much higher and nobler attribute than knowledge alone. Tennyson, speaking of the evolution of civilization, has said that

"Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers."

This is because, as material precedes intellectual growth, so does the victory over ignorance precede that over brutality. Ignorance and brutality are sisters. They encourage each other in mischief. Both are enemies to progress, especially to that slow uplifting of humanity to which philanthropists and humanitarians devote their energies. One-half our failure is due to want of love, the other to lack of information or inability to perceive the truth in its proper proportions and relations. The man who assumes to criticise the ordinary processes of nature or of human nature, and to interfere with them, in order to secure more satisfactory results, cannot know too much, nor possibly enough. God never let loose upon the planet a more dangerous man than the reformer. If he knew more, he would probably abandon his chosen vocation. But the mistakes of reformers would be fewer if they were more deeply imbued with the natural human instincts,— sympathy, toleration, ability to

put one's self in the place of another; if they were less given to denunciation of wrong and more to helping the wrong-doer; if they were more loving-hearted and less self-confident and self-righteous.

Another misconception, which must be guarded against, is that of supposing that love is tolerant of unrighteousness. "Charity rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceth in the truth." "Mercy and truth," said the Psalmist,— mercy and truth, or love and righteousness,— "have kissed each other." Love is the power which makes for righteousness, because "love worketh no ill to his neighbor: therefore, love is the fulfilling of the law." The law of love is the Golden Rule: "As ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them." The universal observance of this rule would usher in the golden age, in which the lost Eden shall be regained.

Love, thus understood, is the solution of every social problem, the antidote for every social ill. Perfect and universal love would put an end to war, to slavery, to intemperance, to licentiousness, to divorce, to pauperism, and to crime. If men were in right relations with each other and with God, there would be no Indian or Chinese or negro question, no conflict between capital and labor, no antagonism between the employer and the employed, no scorn of the poor by the rich, no envy of the rich by the poor, no corruption in politics, no bitter and unreasoning partisanship, no race prejudice, no class distinctions, no caste. The theological controversies that disgrace Christendom would come to an end, and the unity of the Church would be secured by the recognition of the unity of the race, the universal brotherhood of man. Why do men fear love and dread its reign? Why do they put a check upon their own loving impulses? Why do they discourage the manifestation of love in others and refuse to accept the ministrations and sacrifices in which love rejoices? He that is of the truth hears the voice of love; but men love darkness rather than light, because their deeds are evil. Love is light. Love is life. He that loves is born again into a new life, the life of God upon earth, everlasting life, life beyond the tomb.

I marvel, therefore, at the undue importance which we attach in our discussions to methods of charitable work. Not that they are unimportant, not that they do not demand discussion, not that it makes no difference whether we adopt and pursue inferior or vicious methods in preference to better methods, more fruitful of good

results. We need to exchange experiences and to compare opinions. There are practical and unpractical methods, methods scientific and unscientific in every undertaking, religious or secular, in medicine, in education, in philanthropy, and in government. But infinitely more important is the question of the spirit in which they are followed, whether our motives are pure, whether our eye is single, whether we seek, in what we do, self-gratification and the applause of men, or whether we do all in the name of the Master, unselfishly, hoping to be blessed in blessing others. Build up your institutions or tear them down, organize them on this plan or on that, employ whatever agencies for good may seem to you best, find your point of attack, fight the forces of evil where and how you will; but remember that healing comes by the touch, that men are saved not in masses, but one by one, and that every one saved must be saved by an individual whose own heart is filled with love, and who is able to communicate to another the grace which he himself has received.

When next we assemble as a conference, the twentieth century will have begun. We have seen the glory of the passing century. Greater yet will be the glory of the century to come, because it is destined to be a century of moral victories more resplendent than the material and intellectual triumphs of the last hundred years. The twilight of this hour gives promise of the coming day. This has been the century of science, but that will be the century of love. The religious scepticism of science, at present in the thralls of a materialistic philosophy and unable to see spiritual truth with the spiritual eye, will give way before the recognition of the spiritual element in human nature. When to the knowledge of nature shall be added a just conception of the boundless possibilities of growth of the human soul, when the science of social organization and evolution shall become the subject of serious study and as well understood as the natural sciences, the veil will drop that now hides God from the vision of the agnostic, and Science will become the handmaid of Religion.

So much for Science; but what of Religion? I seem to see through the mist which obscures the dawn the dim outlines of a new church and a new creed,— the old church and the old creed purified and glorified, standing forth in the light of the new science, and lighted from within by a deeper consciousness of the love of God for man and a new sense of the obligations of men to each other as brethren in the life that now is.

And, as I gaze, I hear a voice which cries, "The holy city, the new Jerusalem, is come down from God out of heaven." The holy city! Bewildering thought! But why not? If Religion can bring heaven down to earth, and Science, working with Religion, not against her, can raise earth to heaven, is the purification of government, even of municipal government, through the power of love, a thing impossible? The twentieth century may not witness this marvellous transformation, but it will surely come.

And you, who feel the woes of mankind, who know that the world needs regeneration and redemption, who are working with God to bring it about, who want it here and now, who love, and who have consecrated your lives to love's propaganda,— you are the heralds of the morning, the forerunners of the modern Messiah, the advance-guard of the victorious kingdom of God.

III.

Politics in Charitable and Correctional Affairs.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

BY FRANK WILSON BLACKMAR.

There are two ways in which the term "politics" may be applied to charitable and correctional affairs; namely, in the better sense, where it would mean the wise supervision of the state or political administration in the management and control of public charitable and correctional institutions, and in the worse sense, which implies the interference of partisan politics in the scientific management of these institutions. As we understand it, the committee has largely to deal with politics in the latter sense; for the question of the wise supervision of the charitable and correctional institutions of the state by the government of the state, rather than to leave them to the accident of private concern, must be conceded by all as the most modern and approved method of procedure. Therefore, the committee has to deal with two questions, first, as to the evil results arising from the defects of political machinery, and, second, as to how these defects may be overcome.

The committee in presenting these two propositions has no intention of attacking any particular person, party, creed, or institution on account of delinquency of conduct of officials or mismanagement of charities and corrections. It is to examine and criticise prevailing methods for which we, as American citizens, are in part to blame. However, it proposes to attack vigorously and fearlessly the bad methods of appointment of officers of penal and charitable institutions in the various states of the Union, among which Kansas is not the least culpable, and the poor methods prevailing in the management of such institutions. If the management of such institutions were entirely satisfactory in Kansas and other states to-day,

this committee would still have grounds for its position; for we know that, following the common custom, all of the officers would be turned out at the next change of administration.

The first proposition that the committee wishes to present is one that appeals to every person who will take the pains to consider for a minute,— namely, that these institutions should be under the management, control, and conduct of persons especially adapted by natural endowment and specific training for the service rendered. The care of criminals and incorrigibles, insane, epileptic, blind, deaf, dumb, orphans, and the aged, has become in modern times a science, or, we would say, a high combination of science and art; and those only are fitted for the management of these institutions who have scientific knowledge as a foundation, as well as training in the art of management combined with special adaptability for the work. We need not go through a logical process in an endeavor to show that this proposition is true,— for it is generally accepted,— but will pass it by with the simple allusion to the facts that the insane are no longer shut up as a group of abnormal, helpless human beings without care, but are to be classified, treated, and, as far as possible, cured; that the blind have not been fully disposed of when they have been provided with a home or stopping-place, but are to be studied, educated, and, as far as possible, cured of their blindness; that incorrigibles and criminals are also to be carefully cared for and classified, and all made better instead of worse by their treatment; that even for epileptics and imbeciles there is hope of improvement and cure. So long as these things are true, why are we not awake to the fact that men of special adaptability and preparation are needed for the management of these institutions? But what are the conditions of the charitable and penal institutions to-day in this respect? There are some institutions managed by thoroughly efficient officers, chosen for their adaptability and preparation. There are instances where the inmates are scientifically treated, and all of the affairs of the institution wisely and economically managed; but these institutions are not common. All over the country, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, we find men suddenly entering these institutions, facing great difficulties and great responsibilities without any special preparation whatever; and the only excuse offered for their appointment is that they are out of a job, have served the party well, and must have places. Now we do not say that those who have

the appointing power exercise no judgment in this matter, nor do we intend to insist for a moment that in many instances wise choices are not made for the filling of these positions; but we do assert that the general tendency is to change officials with the change of party in power. We have looked over the list of officers and the time they have served in the state of Kansas, and we find that with few exceptions there has been a complete change of the officers and employees of the charitable and penal institutions of Kansas every two years. To a large extent these people are chosen because they have served the party or have brought political pressure to bear upon the appointing powers. So we become overburdened with political machinery in the management of scientific institutions, and too often have turned over the helpless to people whose preparation is wholly inadequate for the service they perform, although they may be well-meaning enough; and, when they have by two years of faithful work become of value to the state, they are suddenly removed to make room for other novices, and thus the institutions become training schools for public officers,— rather expensive as well as dangerous schooling.

What kind of social condition would we be in if physicians, lawyers, and bankers changed their occupations every two years? Imagine that on the 1st of January, 1901, we should be obliged to abandon our old physician, and take up a new, inexperienced one, who had no preparation, but would consent to spend two years in preparation by practising on humanity; or upon the 1st of January, 1901, we should have an entirely new lot of lawyers without experience or preparation, or an entirely new set of bankers who had never seen the inside of a bank or knew nothing of the operations of banking. If we continued this every two years, how long would it be before things were strangely and wonderfully mixed,— ay, confused beyond reparation? But we maintain and can demonstrate that the proper management of a penitentiary, insane asylum, or imbecile asylum, requires as much preparation and care as it does to prepare for medicine or law or the commercial art.

But how can people be prepared for such work? Only as they are prepared for other occupations. Only by scientific study in a definite course and practice under the direction of those who have already acquired skill in the management of such institutions; and, in stating this, we only lay down the plan that is practised in every

other profession in life. Any one of the greater universities of to-day can give two or more years of scientific instruction in sociology, but no university can complete the education except as it directs its students to investigate the methods of management in the institutions themselves.

There is one way in which a person may receive the practical preparation,— by starting into the work without knowing anything about it and practising through a period of years until he obtains perfection, just as a physician may start out with little preparation, but by long practice on humanity may acquire considerable skill in the treatment of disease. This is the surer way of proceeding; but it is long, and especially severe on the institution. It is practical so far as it goes, but it is very severe on the patients. There are scientific books published on the subjects in question; there is instruction at universities; there are years of investigation, if one will but take the trouble; and there is practice under the direction of able and skilled men.

Are these means not sufficient, then let the state provide ampler and special means. It could not spend its money better or more economically than in this way.

But we come to the difficult question of how these scientifically trained men are to find places. There are several ways. In the first place by leaving the appointive power much as it is and having the political conscience and judgment so thoroughly developed that the institutions shall be exempted from partisan appointments, that it shall be generally understood that only those who are prepared shall fill these offices, and that, realizing the confusion and danger of changing these officers, persons shall be removed only on account of incompetence or bad behavior. If this could be brought about by an educational process and the prevailing combined good sense of all parties and without legislation, it would be a consummation devoutly to be wished. But this is not likely to occur, and, therefore, a civil service law should be enacted in each state, putting this whole business on the footing of fitness for the position; and we could wish that such a civil service law would be free of any paralyzing formality, that there should be some other test than the mere answering of competitive examinations, that there should be vested in some competent authority or commission the power to exercise a superior judgment in the case of the employment of people who are

especially fitted for the work. Such a system would dispose of the widow with children to support, who seeks charity by filling a position for which she has no preparation. It would dispose of that weak individual who has met with failure in every other direction, and now seeks to care for those who, like himself, are to receive sustenance from the state. In other words, it would prevent the weak caring for the weak, the blind leading the blind, and all falling into the ditch together. It would dispose of political rakes and bums, the perpetual terror of those who have appointive power, who want to be guards or door-keepers or something else, and are given positions to stop their clamor. It would protect our charitable and penal institutions from an immoral and irresponsible class, who under political usage force their way with all their corruptions and venality within the walls of our institutions. In fact, it would dispose of all "mere pegs to hang an office on," and all bosses seeking "sops for hungry incapacities."

Again, in some of our states,— notably, Kansas,— some changes may be made in methods of administrative government. For instance, in Kansas we have a board of trustees of charitable institutions with a large number of institutions under its control. Without intending to hurt anybody's feelings, we say it would be a good plan to blot out this board and begin over again; and, in saying this, it is not the gentlemen who compose the board or have composed it in the past, but the system, that we are attacking. Then dispose of the local boards that have control of the penitentiary, reformatory, and the reform schools. Then create a board of three or five competent men to control these four institutions. Give the warden of the penitentiary and the superintendents of the reformatory and the reform schools a large power by law of appointment and management in connection with the supervisory board. Then create one other supervisory board for the management of the charitable institutions, of three members, giving the superintendent of each of the various institutions much power, also by law, of appointment and administration, working in harmony with the supervisory board. Having thus simplified the question, see that competent persons are chosen as the heads of the several institutions, and you would have a system immeasurably better than the present. Let the boards be non-partisan or chosen from all the different parties by the governor. Then let the boards employ the best superintendent that can

be got anywhere in the United States for the salary paid, giving each the power of appointment of his assistants and helpers, and you have the Kansas system so modified that there could be little advance by a civil service law. The losses of the state to-day from allowing partisan politics to interfere with the management of her charitable institutions can scarcely be estimated. Thousands of dollars are wasted annually by the bungling of incompetent people. Boards and officers have been multiplied in our system of administration until we have machinery sufficient to govern an empire.

On the other hand, the work of preventing the spread of insanity, imbecility, blindness, and deafness, is greatly facilitated by scientific treatment in such institutions. Crime may be lessened and the criminal tendency stopped by the proper management of our penal institutions. If the number of prisoners detained increases every year on account of a more perfect system of administration, whereby a greater vigilance is observed in the apprehension of criminals, and more exact decisions of judges in accordance with more carefully prepared laws, then it is essential that prisoners be sent forth less disposed to crime than when apprehended, or crime will increase on our hands, and with it the burden of support. Also in the case of defectives: if with the better care we perpetuate and prolong the life of the insane, the blind, the deaf, the imbecile, science must do its best to suppress and cure these diseases, or the aggregate of insanity and imbecility will increase, and with it the burdens upon the tax-paying community. Now as to the effect on the tax-payers: it is easy to see that, while the expenses may be kept down even to a niggardly basis, the arts of economy may not be practised, and through cumbersome machinery and partisan politics the burdens of the tax-payer may be increased in the long run; for through extravagance or niggardliness he will not receive an adequate return for the money invested. While the people pay willingly for the support of charitable institutions, at best these institutions have become expensive.

But the question of partisan politics is not all pent up within the institution itself. It sometimes happens, through the deficiency of legislative enactment on account of politics, that a reform school has been a breeder of crime instead of a preventer, that an insane asylum has increased insanity, that an imbecile asylum has multiplied imbecility. There is another phase of political interference,

namely, the location of institutions; and still another, the appropriation for their support. Every two years political influences are brought to bear to determine the amount that shall be given for the expenses and improvements of each institution. It is not a high state of civilization when the needs of charitable or penal institutions rest upon a political pull for their satisfaction. It is even worse when the institution must be run so as to make a favorable showing for the party in power. This is scarcely a legitimate basis for the operation of a scientific institution, yet it is frequently used as if it were.

In some states of our Union people have been aroused, and have provided means for the improvement of the state of affairs. There ought to be such a campaign of education going through these states, such an agitation for charity organizations and conferences, as would arouse every state to the existing condition of affairs, and for very shame compel a reform. The enormous cost of charitable and penal institutions of the older states of the United States is appalling, and it seems to increase instead of decrease. What will be the results if we have evil effects instead of good arising from the enormous expenditure?

A non-partisan state association of charities and correction might be of great assistance in breaking down the partisan methods that prevail. To interest a large number of prominent people of all parties in the study of the care of the dependants, defectives, and delinquents of the State, would gradually reveal the necessity of non-partisan management.

It would also be of advantage to elect a governor every four years and hold a session of the legislature once in four years. This would tend to a more stable administration and greater opportunities for first-class service by officers. How often we have heard it expressed that it takes about two years' practice to make an officer efficient in the service of the state! Under this general rule of short terms it is scarcely fair to criticise an ordinary political officer for inefficiency until he has had sufficient time to adjust himself to new surroundings. What folly to turn him out just at a time when he becomes highly useful to the state, because some other fellow wants the place! Especially is this true where officers are dealing with helpless human beings, where science and skill are so very essential to good results. We appeal to the leaders of all parties, to states-

men and politicians, to workers and reformers, and to citizens in general, to see to it that the baneful influences of partisan politics be removed from the administration of our charitable and correctional institutions, that crime and defectiveness may be decreased and that the burdens of tax-payers be lessened.

THE ESSENTIAL INIQUITY OF THE SPOILS SYSTEM.

BY PHILIP C. GARRETT.

In 1896 this Conference received a report on this subject, which left no room for doubt that there have been cases of gross and glaring iniquity in charitable institutions, arising from a determination to please political leaders in the selection of subordinate employees and in the purchase of supplies. The same demonstrations have been repeated since. These scandalous abuses of popular prerogative were shown to have cost many lives in some cases, and hundreds of thousands of the tax-payers' money, in order to satisfy the hunger of certain individuals for office or power or wealth. The instances of the Indianapolis Hospital for Insane and the Blockley Almshouse were cited and described at some length; and to these, contained in the report made at Grand Rapids on the subject, we refer those who have not seen them.

The chairman of this committee in last year's Conference swept the horizon, and showed that in many places throughout the country politics rule, in institutions as elsewhere, while in many others the leaven of reform is at work or has already stranded the spoils system, as we trust it will sooner or later everywhere.

But the eyes of the community are not yet properly opened to the real enormity of the offence of robbing the people of money and their beneficiaries of life in this cunning method of cheating the hangman. If a man for the sake of robbing another of his pocket-book deliberately strangles him to death, the whole community is horror-struck; but if, instead of that, he gives an unscrupulous

man the charge of a public institution in order to help himself to gain a profitable berth, and causes the death of a dozen poor victims, then all the people of his party praise him for fidelity to the "party." And yet is he not as liable to indictment for homicide as if his victims were rich, and he deliberately strangled them and despoiled their corpses of money and diamonds?

He has sacrificed their lives to gain his personal ends, and has done it in cold blood.

This temptation to compensate party success by reward — not usually in money directly, though often in the form of lucrative positions — is the pitfall of republics. It is perhaps the greatest danger from universal suffrage. It is the party spirit, against which General Washington warned his countrymen unavailingly.

All of his successors have not been as patriotic as he; and another general occupying Washington's seat in the Presidential chair unscrupulously declared, speaking of the numerical success of one party over the other at the polls, "There are spoils of victory by suffrage, and the spoils of party victory belong to the victorious party," by spoils meaning the public offices at the disposal of the successful candidate. He would not have gone much further if he had repeated the Roman war-cry, *Vae victis*,— "Woe to those who are defeated." Then it was, "To the sword with the conquered!" and the vanquished were in those days consigned to death by gladiatorial combat, to satisfy the thirst for blood of "a Roman holiday."

Analyze the meaning of the spoils doctrine, which in the early days of the republic had little or no place. It simply means this: that, when a question of tariff or currency is submitted to the people for their opinion, declared by popular vote, and tested by the selection of one of their number to the temporary sovereignty of the nation, he and his majority shall thereby assert their right to compensate those who *thought* as they did by paying out the money, which belongs to all the people alike, exclusively to 51 per cent., who prove to have a slight numerical superiority over the other 49 per cent. The other 49 are of right joint owners. It belongs to both in common, to one as much as the other; but the 51 having the power take it.

Suppose a mill manager, running a large mill with five hundred employees, should find he could not possibly obtain a skilled superintendent of his own political party, and could get day hands worth

twice as much from men of the opposite political faith as those he could hire of his own opinion; but, rather than employ members of the other party, he allows his business to go to ruin by employing worthless hands simply because they are of his own political belief: would not any man of common sense say he was guilty of a great folly?

He can do what he will with his own, to be sure, however foolishly. To make the analogy more complete, therefore, between the mill and the city, state or nation, which does the same thing, suppose that a mill superintendent employed by a stock corporation to represent the stockholders in the profitable running of a cotton-mill is a Republican, and, in searching for his principal assistants, he finds a first-class loom boss and a first-class spinning boss who are Democrats or Populists, and can get no others but inferior men; but, because these two are not Republicans, he refuses to employ them, and sacrifices the interests of the stockholders who hired him, 45 per cent. of whom are Democrats or Populists and 55 per cent. Republicans, by employing the worthless bosses, and under their management the mill goes to pieces, all the mill hands being selected in the same way, because of their political belief: what would the owners say? Would they not say, "Thou wicked and dishonest servant, we will cast thee into prison till thou hast recovered the uttermost farthing"?

When similar unscrupulousness is applied to a hospital, with suffering patients depending on the best nursing, doctoring, and diet, an element of barbarity is added to the iniquity, from which the soul recoils with loathing.

The fathers of our republic commonly regarded public positions of any kind which they held as a trust for the community, for those who differed from them as much as those who agreed with them, and, as such, to be treated entirely in the public interest, and as little in their own as if it were money held by them in a fiduciary capacity. Unfortunately, there are not the same penalties for violations of trust where place, and not money, is the matter intrusted to the person who violates the trust. So wide is the deviation now from the simple and honorable ways of our forefathers that administration of public office purely with an eye to the public interest is the exception, and not the rule.

It is now commonly forgotten that *ordinary honesty* requires that

a person chosen for any position in which he is acting for the people, whether as a legislator, governor, or mayor, or as warden of a prison or superintendent of an almshouse, should be content with his simple salary.

On the contrary, men very commonly accept office "for what there is in it," thereby meaning for what they can make out of it dishonestly, because what they can get out of it belongs either to the community at large or to somebody else, but not to the public's agent personally, and therefore can only be acquired by him dishonestly.

One early result from the incumbency in office of men of loose ideas of personal obligation is that the same want of conscience runs through their entire administration. A buzzard cannot feed on sweet meat.

Joshua L. Baily, the eminent temperance advocate, has recently published a series of notes on prohibition in Kansas. After praising the conditions at Topeka and condemning those at Wichita, he refers to Leavenworth, and says: "About three miles from Leavenworth is the National Soldiers' Home, where are now about 2,800 old soldiers. Here the United States government maintains a beer hall or canteen, where beer is sold to any soldier who wishes it; and, so long as they have the money to pay for it and do not become drunken and disorderly, they are not restrained as to quantity. Although a considerable number of the soldiers never take beer, the larger proportion are drinkers, and many of them to excess, and with these the appetite is constantly stimulated by the facility with which it is gratified; but it is not only the appetite for beer that is stimulated, but the desire for stronger liquors, which are not sold at the home. There is no difficulty in obtaining leave of absence. Passes are issued freely; and for a five-cent fare a man can go to Leavenworth, which some of them do almost daily, to indulge their appetite for whiskey. But the old soldiers need not go as far as Leavenworth. Just outside the main gateway of the home is a little village known as 'Klondyke,' a cluster of about thirty frame tenements, most of them one-story only. At least three-fourths are whiskey saloons, gambling houses, or dens of the grossest immorality. The patrons of these places are almost exclusively the soldiers of the home. The existence and character of these immoral resorts are well known to the governor and other officers of the home, as well

as to the governor and attorney-general of the state of Kansas. It may be that the officers of the state have no right to interfere with the sale of liquors in the home, as that is on the property of the United States government; but, as to the Klondyke, the state officers have exclusive jurisdiction." Mr. Baily adds: "This infamous resort has existed for years, without any effort worthy the name of effort having been put forth to suppress it. It should be stamped out at once."

I cite this severe arraignment by Mr. Baily of the disregard of the welfare of the inmates of the Soldiers' Home, because it looks like a case in point, and because, being in the state of Kansas, the facts can easily be found or disproved by the citizens of that state. Here is an institution, a "charitable" institution, where a gross abuse exists. The question is, Are the parties guilty of this abuse political appointees? And, if so, has not the gentle treatment of the Klondyke Babylon, to the scandalous danger and detriment of the old soldiers, some relation to their politics or the nature of their appointments? It is scarcely conceivable that, if the best persons who could be found accepted these places, they could have failed to clean out such dens, and rescue the old men consigned to their charge. If the inference is true that the lives and morals of the people placed under their care have been sacrificed to appoint certain men who have done service to a political leader, then this case is a fair type of the evil which we wish to condemn with severity. The writer knows nothing whatever of the personalities or politics of the case. His comment is, therefore, perfectly impersonal, and made on general principles. It is the principle which we attack,—the principle of using public office for personal ends; and this principle is a foul weed that is overrunning like a poison vine our social and political fabric and endangering popular government.

The nature of this subject is such that it is difficult to adduce concrete cases directly in point. In the largest number of instances no great disaster results, but simply a pervasive condition of rottenness and mismanagement. In the case of the investigation of the public institutions of Boston in 1894 there are three enormous volumes of testimony, covering nearly 4,000 octavo pages. Although great abuses were exposed, they were not ascribed in the report to political control. Yet during the period covered by the investigation the institutions were managed by a salaried commis-

sion, it is presumed under political influences. The labor and expense of investigating promotes the *laissez-faire* policy. It will be understood that the volume of material to be gone over makes it hard to select the pith of the evidence, there is so much husk. The same cause renders investigation rare and difficult of accomplishment, because somebody has to bear the heavy cost; and it consumes a vast amount of time. But there are a few salient cases, in which a desperate state of things has driven communities to make investigations that have led to exposure of the crying evil of favoritism, resulting in imbecile management and dishonesty.

In the case of the Elmira Reformatory, one of the most remarkable men in the history of penology was held up to condemnation and his services nearly lost to the world, and, so far as appears, simply because he would not become the subservient tool of politicians who wanted his place for those who would; for there is a system of punishment as well as one of reward in the scheme of party politics.

The main charge against Mr. Brockway was that he punished ("spanked" was his own phrase, and it correctly designated the operation),— *spanked* some of his most obstinate criminals. It was a mild and harmless punishment, applied with a piece of strap, and was magnified into an act of cruelty. Happily, the prosecution, which was supported chiefly by the testimony of such criminals as came under this punishment, failed. And thus a man who is a good and merciful man, the like of whom as the successful administrator of a large reformatory does not probably exist, was saved to the state of New York and to the roll of eminent penologists. Such is the evil and far-reaching poison of this unrighteous principle of giving the *spoils* to the political victors.

Within a month Captain Lawrence, the reputable superintendent of Blockley Almshouse, who was one of the representatives from Pennsylvania at the last National Conference, has been forced from his position, apparently in defiance of law; and common rumor has it that this is because the mayor wants his place for a favorite or a factional supporter. This is not surprising in Philadelphia, whose councils are notoriously corrupt.

It is probable that similar causes — that is, the favoritism of men in power — in the New Jersey Home for Girls have recently led to the necessity for its investigation for serious maladministration.

Another illustration has come under the writer's notice, not, it is true, involving a charitable or penal institution, but no less àpropos, because like causes produce like results even in different media. The public education association of one of our large cities had occasion to investigate the character or quality of the school directors of the district, and adopted the method of ascertaining their occupations. It was not precisely a fair test, because it is *possible* for a person of any occupation, however humble, to be intelligent and capable. And yet the result was unmistakable evidence that the candidates for this important office were selected, not for fitness, but for political reward, regardless of their unfitness.

What was the result? Not a list of men of the learned professions, not divines, not merchants nor manufacturers nor men of leisure, but laborers, watchmen, janitors, barbers, street-car conductors and motormen, who could not possibly give any attention to the schools, a number of liquor dealers, bar-tenders, and many of like occupations. It has been found, indeed, that some of these school directors did not so much as know how to read or write.

The reason was an evident and a familiar one in the aforesaid city. The positions of the school directors were simply regarded by the political bosses as so many cheap rewards for the humbler henchmen who had done work for them at the polls. This is the bottom of the ladder for political aspirants, the top of which will never be reached by such material. On the way up are the political philanthropists, who accept benevolent situations if a sufficient salary is attached.

No honest administration can be built on this foundation. There never was a more mischievous doctrine in politics or philanthropy.

What do *the people* want? Is it the desire of the people that their institutions shall be well managed or ill? If well, it will never be attained until some more serious penalty is enforced,— mark, not imposed by law, but unflinchingly enforced upon men in political office who wickedly use their place to rob the people by awarding the subordinate places in their gift to personal and political friends for their own, and not the universal, benefit. It is no more honest to do this for their party than for their individual selves. If done for the party, it is for the most part to retain themselves in power under the thin guise of doing the party good ; and the party means the party organization, not sound principles as opposed to vicious ones. The

party organization is the clique of men living by politics, who manage to keep in their own hands the nomination and election of its candidates.

But do the people want their affairs fairly administered? The tenacity with which they cling to party managers, often known rascals, under the plea that the party must be saved at all hazards, gives rise to doubt on this point. Are the principles of *any* party of higher value than the maintenance of honesty and the punishment of corruption? *Has any party any principles* in such hands? Are not its platforms delusive promises to tickle the public fancy, and often to be cast to the winds at the first convenient opportunity? When this cancer has progressed so far that institutions to rescue men and women from lives of crime are subjected to its influence, when the sick and suffering, orphans, the very poor, and those saddest victims of disease, the insane, are to be the game of men whose loftiest patriotism is to fill their own purses and keep themselves in power and place, then it may safely be predicted that the level of morality in that nation has sunk so low that the handwriting on the wall will one day appear at one of its luxurious feasts: "Thy days are numbered," "Give up thy stewardship, for thou mayest be no longer steward" of thy boasted liberty.

Would that one could feel sure that the disease can be cured! The worst of it is that the mercenary spirit of America has grown so greedy and ravenous that a low standard of morality has taken the place of nobler standards; and, in the competition for fortune, power, and privilege, a degree of selfishness has arisen that is not defensible on any Christian or ethical basis.

But there is something for the Conference to do in insisting that this degraded spirit, however it may be suffered to destroy the efficiency of our post-offices, of government departments, and of the political machinery of cities and states, shall not be tolerated in the precincts of charitable and penal institutions. Here, at least, a degree of generosity, of true manliness, of mercy, of all the instincts of benevolence, should reign, and villany be held at arm's length.

We use somewhat unqualified expressions as to these evils, because we think they are needed and are not too severe. But the very fact, just commented on, that the whole community is largely permeated by this grasping spirit, which at least makes offices in the gift of political men fair game for anybody, has rendered men so

callous, so blind to the *meum* and *tuum* of the question, that many, in their sweet innocence of wrong, think one is calling hard names when he speaks the simple truth.

Men in their zeal for party not unfrequently abuse the best friends of their country for calling attention to the evils of partisanship. Even George Washington would have been branded as a traitor by spoilsmen for his warnings of the danger of party spirit, because these warnings would imperil the success of that particular combination called The Party.

Men are oftener misled by symbols and shibboleths than they are by concrete realities. The Party, The Flag, Our Country, Liberty, what crimes have been committed in those sacred names! But "the life is more than meat, and the body than raiment." Neither the floating flag nor the party organization is in itself very sacred. The party is the symbol of certain principles; the flag is the symbol of the nation's entity. But, when we come to substitute for party the personal interests of a clique of not over-principled men who are masquerading, we are grossly deceiving ourselves. Under the mask of patriotism in their cases are hidden selfishness and venality. Wearing the livery of servants of the people, they presume to be masters, and are enslaving the community. Every *true* patriot must agonize to throw off this yoke and be truly free.

To the victor belong the spoils, forsooth! The party is victorious; and the bosses are the party, therefore to the bosses belong the spoils. It is a monstrous and barbarous doctrine, unworthy of a civilized republic. It is not true. They do not belong to the victorious boss. They belong to the people. It is true in war simply because war does not profess to be anything else than a system of destruction and robbery. War depends avowedly on taking the lives and property of others. But neither government treasuries and post-offices, nor hospitals, reformatories, and homes are in that business. There has got to be an "irrepressible conflict" between the party machine, made up of party leaders and spoilsmen on the one hand and the people on the other, until the people win. Till then we shall never be rescued from the mismanagement of institutions that get under political control. For, as the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, a paper independent of party, says, the machine is against reform or improvement. "As the machine is founded on the suppression of the popular will and endures only by reason of the chi-

canery provided by our present election system, it is hopeless to expect it to assist in such revision of the laws as shall conduce to fair and honest elections. The pollution of the ballot is undertaken for the benefit of the forbidden forces in our politics. Recent exposures show that office-holders and expectants commit the frauds, and are provided with bail and with high-priced counsel when their liberty is jeopardized and with means of subsistence when they resort to flight."

Such are the benevolent influences which sometimes obtain control of our institutions.

This is written by an optimist, and is not pessimism. It is fact. We have a fair country which God has given us,— a very Garden of Eden for beauty, but over it is the trail of the serpent,— a garden of roses, fragrant and fair ; and this is our thorn with the rose.

Fain would we part with the serpent, and the thorn, and then our paradise would be passing fair. But let us not ignore the presence of the thorn and thistle and the serpent, and run our optimism to the length either of thinking ourselves and the party perfect or thinking the too visible imperfections not worth condemning.

And now what can the Conference do about it? It would be well if the Conference would, in guardianship of the wise administration of charities, continue this subject from year to year in the expectation that its committee would keep a watchful eye on the country in this respect, and invite and collate information from the various States in furtherance of their work of prevention and improvement. It would be well for it to influence public opinion year by year, and for its members to aid in securing the enactment of laws which will make life a thorny and difficult path for those who corruptly control either the franchises or the institutions that belong to the people. And its power and influence have become such that these efforts will not be despised.

We commend the subject to our successors, with the suggestion that it be not allowed to rest so long as there is in the land an institution of charity or correction which is not conducted on the honest business principle that the best men and the best management shall control them regardless of politics.

IV.

Lockups, Jails, and Workhouses.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

The progress of the people of a country toward a better social condition is a process of evolution, and improvement and advancement are not uniform throughout all phases of community life. The development of our material and commercial methods has amazed the world. The comforts of the home life of our people have been augmented in many ways. We are now grappling with tremendous political problems, arising under our form of self-government and following in the wake of a war waged in behalf of a distressed people. In the domain of public and private charities, marked progress has been recorded as the result of earnest efforts of many trained minds.

There remains one phase of our social life which appears by general consent to be neglected save by a few workers, and in that field evolution is a slow process. Instead, prevention and preventive measures are urged, with the hope that the future will reveal great benefits that shall remain as the fruitage of our present toil and endeavor. It is to this generally neglected field that your committee has the honor to draw your attention.

Tradition, custom, and the slow progress made in American jurisprudence have left our common jails but little in advance of the petty places of incarceration known to our forefathers of the past century. While some progress has been made, it has been extremely slow as compared with the evolution of other phases of our social progress.

It is the purpose of this report to give a plain and candid statement of the present condition of our lockups, jails, and workhouses, to show what improvements have been made in some quarters, to indicate briefly some reforms that at this time seem to be most urgently

desired, that the entire situation may be brought to the attention of an intelligent body of thinkers, who, in turn, realizing this neglect, may become emissaries of light to develop a public sentiment that will make the progress in the near future atone in a measure for the remissness of the past.

Lockups.

Every city, town, and village having a town council or municipal organization provides some form of lockup for the temporary incarceration of persons suspected, or found guilty, of violating the peace and good order of the community or of committing offences forbidden by ordinance. These lockups are generally put on back streets. They front on alleys. They are in the basement of town buildings, often in connection with a building used for the storage of fire apparatus; and, as a general thing, they are left to decay and rot under the ravages of time. Occasionally a little whitewash is applied; and at rare intervals the lockup may be scrubbed, painted, or renovated. They are foul dens, infested with vermin, reeking with dirt and filth. The exceptions to this general rule depend upon the personal efforts of the jailer, who may be encouraged by a degree of civic pride found in the community. As a rule, however, citizens take no interest in jails or prisons. In a very few states there is a law on the statute books, requiring certain conditions in the construction and inspection of town lockups; but even in those states only the most vigorous action of a state board of charities and correction, supplemented by local boards, maintains the general standard up to the requirements of the law. Town lockups are fire-traps; and, could statistics be gathered, it would be found that a number of deaths occur annually through fire in our common jails. "We generally burn up one man a year in our state in these lockups," is the way one state official's report reads. Youth of tender age, for disturbances against the peace and good order of society, are thrust into unsanitary lockups, where to breathe the fetid air for five minutes is exquisite torture; and there they remain for hours and sometimes for days, being fed through a small grated opening by one of the guardians of the peace, while crying mothers and indignant fathers protest in vain. The shock upon child nature by confinement in these foul dens effects an irreparable injury. Often men and women are thrown together in these buildings, with only a

makeshift in the way of separation of the sexes. In large towns and cities the central police stations, generally built in basements of city halls, are dark, malodorous quarters, with a central "bull-pen" and separate cells, which separate prisoners to the degree that they cannot touch each other save by reaching through bars; but they can freely converse at all hours of the day and night. It is a common custom to give prisoners the freedom of the corridor during the day, so that old and young may mingle and converse without restraint.

A recent newspaper report of improvements in a police station in Brooklyn, N.Y., congratulates that city upon the wonderful improvement accomplished. "Not long ago a wooden partition separated the males and females; and it was not so thick but what the prisoners could shout and exchange vile talk, while perfect bedlam raged day and night. The cells were dirty, and the air frightfully foul. The bull-pen located in the same department was in the basement, and was dark and gloomy. A leakage from the sewer caused a permanent deposit of several inches on the floor, so that officers had to walk on planks in placing prisoners in this dungeon." And this frightful condition of affairs existed in the City of Churches less than five years ago.

In San Antonio, Tex., a newspaper report likewise congratulates the local public upon the fact that the new city jail in the basement of the town hall is connected with the sewer, has five cells, a water closet and bath-room; and yet the report adds, "While the prisoners are in jail, they only attire themselves in underclothing or are stark naked in order to keep cool, the women being no exception."

These are not isolated instances,— many more may be cited,— but these illustrate the general apathy of the public. Imagination is unable to conceive of the condition of town lockups and city police stations in all the length and breadth of this land, from Puritan New England to Acadian Louisiana, from the forest and plain country of the North to the orange groves and perfume-laden communities of Southern California.

We read of the horrors of the dungeons described by dramatists and novelists, we are told of the terrors of Russian prisons; yet in our own land of freedom and liberty the majority of our common jails are ill-ventilated, poorly lighted, with absolutely no sanitation.

County Jails.

County jails exist in nearly every county in every state in the Union. A few counties are, fortunately, blessed by having no county jails. Ways of constructing and maintaining county jails are past understanding. In some of the large cities of the Union there are county jails that are well lighted, properly warmed and ventilated, having ample sanitary conveniences and reasonably safe against fire, mob violence, or jail breaks. There is complete separation of the sexes and opportunity for the separation of inmates according to their personal condition and degree of offence, if officials in charge do their duty.

The number of modern county jails is not large. In cities fifty, seventy-five, or a hundred years old there are county jails of stone so damp that the health of a prisoner confined there for a thirty-day sentence is always impaired because of the dampness which is perennial. There are jails so cramped for space, so generally overcrowded, that prison wardens and prison physicians in their annual reports speak of the impaired health of convicts coming from such jails. A few instances will suffice. A newspaper report from Alabama, in speaking of a county jail, says: "The smell in the jail comes from a large box just outside the rear wall, in which refuse from the market is deposited. From this place rises a horrible stench. It is a lamentable fact," continues the report, "that white women and negro women have to be confined together." It is a more lamentable fact that any human being is confined for an hour in a place in which a self-respecting farmer would not place a hog with any expectation of thereafter eating home-cured ham or bacon. In another county jail in the South, where a newspaper reports eighty barred cells and one hundred and sixteen prisoners, in speaking of the insane people confined there, it says, "They are a nuisance to other prisoners, a hardship to the jailer, and an annoyance to residents near the jail." In the last report of the board of charities of the state of Pennsylvania, of one-third of the county jails of that state, the secretary of the board reports, "Nothing can be said in commendation."

County jails are not always fireproof, and the death-rate from the burnings of town lockups is augmented by the annual cremation of county jail prisoners.

In county jails where less than a dozen prisoners are confined, the general plan of the jail includes an open corridor and a few dark and gloomy cells. In this open corridor the prisoners congregate, pass the time in idleness, and are looked in upon by the officer in charge at rare intervals. In county jails where the population runs from twenty-five to one hundred and fifty, prisoners bunk in little cells, two, three, or four to a cell, sleeping in hammocks one above the other or in bunks suspended by chains from the wall of the cell; but during the day all prisoners on one tier assemble in central corridors, talk and joke, hold kangaroo courts, or prowl back and forth in the small confined space, like caged animals in a menagerie. There may be two or more wings or tiers; but the separation is in groups, and not solitary. Even where jails are provided for absolute separation, the kind-hearted jailer, believing it will be more comfortable for the prisoners, permits them to associate together; or he may do this in order to save himself the trouble of carrying out his full duty, as required by the rules of the prison or as was intended in the construction of the jail, in demanding complete separation. No work is exacted from prisoners; and often the cells are littered with refuse, alive with vermin, while the officers in charge neglect to open windows sufficiently to provide a proper amount of fresh air, which costs nothing.

Workhouses.

Connected with county jails in some of the principal cities of the country, workhouses have been established, where prisoners convicted and sentenced for minor offences are given short terms of imprisonment, manual work of some kind being supplied. The work may be contract labor after the methods of state prisons, or it may be local industries, as road building and park improvement. The workhouse at St. Paul, Minn., is located across the street from the city park; and much of the work of improving and beautifying that park has been done by workhouse prisoners. In the South the prisoners are employed on road building in the counties under the leasing system. Whatever may be said of the evils of the convict leasing system, it is certainly to be said in favor of that method of employing county convicts that they have plenty of fresh air and wholesome exercise; and, as a rule, their physical condition is im-

proved by reason of the services they render and the regular habits of life which are enforced by the discipline. Some of these county convicts may be restrained at night in the temporary camps by means of leg fetters or may be herded at night in dirty stockades; but many are considered trusties, and their life while serving sentence does not differ materially from the life of laborers employed by contractors in the construction of dams, canals, reservoirs, tunnels, or railroad grades. Recent laws in the states of New York and of Pennsylvania, prohibiting contract labor in county workhouses or penitentiaries, have resulted in a temporary suspension of all labor,—a condition which is greatly deplored by officials in charge of such institutions.

Improvements.

The public conscience in some communities has effected radical changes. State boards of charities, county boards of visitors, local improvement societies, and individuals have inquired into the conditions of lockups, jails, and workhouses, and have, by agitation and the creation of a better public sentiment, secured radical reforms. Town trustees, boards of aldermen, and boards of county commissioners have repaired, altered, or constructed new places for the incarceration of offenders against the law; and, as a general rule, the new construction is made upon the advice of representatives of firms in the jail construction business. One large firm in this country builds several hundred jails and prisons each year, and their effort is based solely upon commercial precedents. The ideal jail is the exception, and the usual cage construction is carried out. Basements are the favorite place, because they are valueless for any other purpose; and, the space being given, the jail is planned so as best to economize that space. Light, ventilation, heat, and sanitary conveniences take the second place in the cost of construction.

Workhouses are advocated by cities and counties that do not have them, and after months and sometimes years of agitation this may be accomplished. But the construction and establishment of the workhouse in connection with county jails are not the end or the difficulty. The management of the workhouse is generally open to criticism, and the methods of employing the prisoners encounter the same opposition that comes to all state prisons.

Reforms Desired.

While the conditions outlined in the foregoing review exist, the physical condition of these institutions, be they village lockups, county jails, or county workhouses, may be radically improved. Prisoners are entitled to fresh air and as much sunshine as is necessary for health. Perfect sanitation of the premises, including heat, light, and immunity from fire, can and should be secured; and local public sentiment must be aroused to accomplish this much at the earliest possible moment. The separation of the sexes and of the young from the old offender must be absolutely enforced, — the separation to be both of sight and sound.

Having accomplished this much improvement, — for these offences so wide-spread throughout the Union cry to heaven for relief, — there are other steps that can be taken in the ultimate effort toward the reformation of our lockups, jails, and workhouses.

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First. A consideration of the offences against society and continued revision of the legal code regarding misdemeanors and felonies.

Vagrancy, drunkenness, assaults, and brawls, which make up the bulk of offences which lead to imprisonment in local lockups and county jails, demand a different treatment than the customary short sentence of ten, twenty, thirty, or sixty days. The Massachusetts probation system is a wise step forward; and a probation official can render the community valuable service and effect a financial saving far in excess of his salary, not to mention the higher good accomplished. Measuring offences by rule and arbitrarily dealing out alleged justice is obsolete, and the public is fast learning that the wiser policy is that of individual study and treatment which comes through the probationary system.

Second. A consideration of police and justice court methods in cities. This may be called a corollary of the first.

Third. Prisoners must be given employment that shall be remunerative both to the community which is compelled to support courts and jails and to the prisoners. Whether this shall be by workhouses in the great cities, by work on public roads, by contract labor, by lease, or by any other form or method which may be devised, each community can only solve for itself.

Fourth. The establishment of juvenile courts in cities, proper

truancy laws, and the strict prohibition of youthful offenders from imprisonment in our common lockups and jails, unless absolute separation from other prisoners is exacted.

Fifth. Legal supervision of lockups and jails, with power to adopt plans and the power to condemn unsanitary or improper structures, must be secured.

Under customary methods, jail builders may plan as they wish; but they are held to the commercial rules of competition and expediency, while the officials contracting for such jails, through ignorance or a laudable desire to save money, restrict jail builders so that jails are inadequate to proper needs.

Sixth. The abolishment of the county jail and the local workhouse, and the establishment of prisons under state control with provision for such variety and kinds of employment, at all seasons of the year, as shall be educational and disciplinary, in order that the prisoner, when discharged, may be able to earn an honest living and be disposed to do it. Along with this, and a necessary part of it, must come the indeterminate sentence instead of the short term of definite sentence, together with careful state supervision of the discharged prisoner for the months immediately following his parole.

C. L. Stonaker, Denver.
J. J. McCook, Hartford.
Charlton T. Lewis, New York.
Levi L. Barbour, Detroit.
Jas. F. Jackson, St. Paul.
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THE MANAGEMENT OF JAILS.

BY JAMES F. JACKSON,

SECRETARY OF MINNESOTA STATE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

The prominent idea of jail management has been that of retaining the prisoner's body. The management of the jail as regards influence on the prisoner's character is practically unknown. That has not been seriously thought of. In fact, most sheriffs seem not to have considered that there might be such a thing as improving the morals of a prisoner or conserving such morals as he may possess.

No penal institutions, above the neglected and wretched lockups, contain so many prisoners as the county jails. The theory of punishment, which began with vengeance, was followed by a system of chastising evil-doers with instruments of torture. This was succeeded by attempted reformation or rehabilitation; and, finally, in these last days the idea of prevention is being considered. But the jail is still where Howard left it a century ago. We have ceased to keep people in jail because they cannot pay fees for release. Prisoners are not starved because they cannot pay their board.

For the most part there is separation as to sex, and the jail is endurable. In few jails does there survive that smell which compelled Howard to travel on horseback, because he could not endure in a stage-coach the odor emitted from his clothing after having inspected a jail. But the prison condition, as set forth by the honorable secretary from Colorado, chairman of the committee, indicates that the prisoner in jail is treated simply by repressive measures, neither reformation nor prevention being considered.

A great opportunity is missed. We fail to appreciate that, in a single year, several times — perhaps eight or ten times — as many people are in jails as in the prisons and reformatories. We do not realize that some proportion of this large number of people would never go further in crime if wisely treated in jail. The sheriff has a chance for the betterment of his prisoners before they ever see the inside of a reformatory.

The original purpose of refining petroleum was to produce an.

illuminant. Under a highly developed system of manufacture, its by-products are more valuable than the illuminant, kerosene oil. We are so interested in locking up our man to produce him at the proper time that we lose sight of the possible by-products of the jail, the conserving and improvement of the morals of the prisoner.

It is said that the jail is a school of crime, and a costly one, when a $10,000 place of detention is maintained for a small average population; that it develops criminals to prey upon the community, and occupy the time of our courts; and that it provides a convenient place where the baser sort may have free board and lodging and the companionship of their kind during the winter, for which they may qualify by committing some minor depredation. We admit the charge, and realize its gravity; but we must also acknowledge that by good management he may decrease, or by bad management of his jail the sheriff may increase, the useless expenditure of the people's money. But vastly more important is the fact that he is in no small degree the arbiter of the destinies of many of his prisoners.

Construction is as important in the management of jails, as in the management of factories, stores, or asylums. An analysis of the kinds of population is the basis of classification for construction. Construction must provide for all classes who are under the sheriff's control,— men and women, the innocent, the insane, the youth, the accidental criminal, the morally depraved, and the desperate criminal. A statement of these various classes is itself a sufficient argument; and yet how many jails have so much as one separate apartment for the women, the youth, or the insane? And, if there be any place for those awaiting trial apart from those serving sentences, that jail is commendable; and the jailer who will separate the youthful offender from the hardened criminal is marked as one of unusual discretion. Some time ago I received a communication from a Minnesota jailer, asking if something could not be done concerning a lad of fifteen. He reported that upon the commitment of his first offence the boy had been thrust into their unclassified jail with hardened offenders, and for several days following his arrest he was penitent, and deeply humiliated with his position. But his hardened companions laughed at him, called him his "mamma's pet" and "Sunday-school boy," caused him to feel that he was effeminate, and instilled in his mind false notions of society's rela-

tion to him; and, as a result, the boy had now come to be the most hardened of his prisoners. This experience was used with effect upon the board of county commissioners, and that county now has one of the best small jails in the state.

The vagabond is not the only person with whom it is dangerous for the youth to associate in jail. There is a man now in jail in Minnesota on charge of having wrecked a bank. He replies to the statement of sorrow or regret from the youths who are incarcerated with him that it is no disgrace to be in jail; that he, a capitalist and banker from a neighboring city, feels it no disgrace, and his commanding bearing gives added effect to his acts. His sensational reading and other bad habits make a deep impression on any youth who had not previously been on terms of equal intimacy with a man of so commanding and refined presence. Persons familiar with that jail state that it is difficult to estimate the evil wrought by him upon his fellow-prisoners. I am pleased to say that since starting from home a meeting has been had with the board in charge of the jail where this banker is confined, and they have ordered plans for a new jail.

The value of separate confinement may also be illustrated by the following incident. Three men were committed to a jail for a petty theft. Each was directed to a separate cell. Whereupon the leader turned to the jailer, and said, "Do we have to stay each in his own cell?" Being informed that they did, he replied, "Well, if I had knowed that, I would never have come,— didn't used to be this way." Perhaps he was not so badly off as the less experienced man, who intended to steal a little and secure a winter's board. But he entered a building to commit the theft, and was sent to the reformatory for burglary.

For three years or more no jails have been constructed in Minnesota except upon plans approved by the state board of corrections and charities. The general rule in the smaller counties is to build a two-story brick jail and sheriff's residence. On each floor of the jail are four cells, two on either side of a common corridor; and a solid door from this common corridor is the only entrance to each cell. However, the rear of each cell has a barred opening, admitting abundant light from the window opposite. The intention is that an occupant on one side of this central corridor shall not be able to see or to converse with an occupant of a cell on the other side. The cells

are about seven feet square, the ceilings about nine feet high. The purpose is that each prisoner shall be confined in his own cell, except when he has his daily exercise in the central corridor. Separate confinement is an extension to the individual of the principles of classification.

"The separate system of confinement in county jails has been unanimously advocated by careful observers: first, to secure the salutary effect of a first arrest upon inexperienced offenders, often dissipated by association; second, to prevent the contagion of crime, which results, according to the testimony of all jail officers, in making our jails schools of crime, and leaving the prisoners worse instead of better for their confinement; third, as a prevention of escape and a protection to the jail officers against the combined assaults of prisoners, frequently made in the effort to escape; fourth, as a means of wholesome discipline to many vicious prisoners who escape all other infliction; fifth, as a means of protecting the better class of prisoners, who do not wish to associate with the vile and depraved." It is important that there be no so-called "trusties," having the freedom of the corridors, where they may place all prisoners in communication one with another.

Given a jail constructed to provide a separate cell for each individual of the various classes of prisoners, a jail that is sanitary in construction, well lighted, having baths, hot and cold water, the duties of management are comparatively simple. Cleanliness must be insured for the building and the prisoners. If cleanliness be next to godliness, there is no place where it more needs to be practised than in the jail. The value of cleanliness is underestimated as a deterrent from crime. When it is well understood that prisoners must be physically clean and remain alone in clean, well-lighted cells, there will be less crime committed for the purpose of boarding at the county's expense.

Frequent inspection is essential to proper management of any public institution. The general public can much help the management of jails by frequent and irregular but not censorious visits. State inspection is of value, because no man knows when the inspector will come. Recently a state inspector appeared at a jail office, and was informed in reply to inquiries that the sheriff was in the country and the deputy down town. He busied himself with the register of prisoners; and the attendant quietly passed from the

office around the corner of the jail, when the inspector overheard the following in a stage whisper: "Say there, youse fellers, get a move on you, and clean up. There is a man comin' to inspect the jail."

It is important that the prisoner's reading should be carefully censored. Of course, if separate confinement is practised, as it ought to be, there will be no opportunity for social games: but in no event should they be admitted. The purpose of the jail is not to make matters as convenient and comfortable as possible for "the boys," but to make those boys the better for their imprisonment. The way of the transgressor is hard that there may be an end of transgression,—the surgeon hurts to cure.

The number of visitors, other than inspectors and moral instructors, should be limited to those who have a definite and proper reason for seeing particular prisoners. The custom which obtains in certain communities of treating the prisoners as museum freaks should be summarily stopped.

A few simple rules should be adopted and enforced. It is difficult to overestimate the importance of rigid punctuality on the part of the jailer and on the part of the prisoners. Prisoners should rise by the clock, have their meals by the clock, the exercise of each prisoner should be taken at stated times, and all the prisoner's movements should be governed with the most exacting regularity. The reason is that method and system inspire respect for law and confidence in the authority behind the law. They generate habit, and habit makes character.

JAIL CONSTRUCTION AND MANAGEMENT.

BY C. M. FINCH, ST. LOUIS, MO.

This paper is not presented from the standpoint of a practical charity worker, but from the standpoint of a practical jail-builder.

Jails are built for the safe-keeping of such persons as are placed in the custody of officers of the courts. These officers, be they municipal, county, or judicial court officials, have placed in their custody and are held responsible for the safe-keeping of persons who have been found to be violators of the law, are supposed to have violated the law, are unfortunate enough to be held as witnesses, or because they have been found to be mentally irresponsible. Custom and tradition have had full sway; and, until recently, officers have been compelled by the local conditions to confine all such persons in jails and lockups without any regard to separation or class distinctions. There are almost as many classes of prisoners as there are classes of human beings. In building a perfect jail, all classes must be provided for.

The most common class of prisoners is that of the ordinary drunk, or bum. He does not excite public sympathy to any very great extent, nor has he been much considered by jail providers. Nevertheless, that part of a prison which is allowed for the holding of this class must be made absolutely perfect from a sanitary standpoint. If not for the benefit of the individual for whom it is provided, it should be perfect for the benefit of the people who are obliged to come in contact with this class.

It is not at all uncommon, in these days, to have boys confined in jail, at least temporarily. In most cases the boy has done nothing seriously wrong, but has been put in jail, probably, because he has violated some city ordinance or perhaps stayed out after the curfew bell has sounded. He may possibly have done something that is a little out of the way, and yet have done it in a mere spirit of mischief, and should not be seriously punished or injured on account of it. We must provide a place for boys in which they cannot come in contact with the common drunk or the hardened criminal.

We then have, as another class, men who have been unfortunate enough to have witnessed a crime. Such a prisoner may be a gentleman of the very highest standing, but he may be a stranger and without funds. In order to assure the prosecution of the violator of the law, we must hold this man. It would be an outrage to place him in a cage or cell with the hardened and, possibly, convicted criminal.

It is not at all uncommon for women to be imprisoned, and we certainly have two classes of women prisoners. We have the hardened class, who are almost as much at home in jail as they are in their own miserable abodes. We have another class who may have, in self-protection, technically violated the law. Because they are held to answer to some charge, of which they may afterward be proved innocent, it is no reason why we should confine them with the coarse or vulgar women.

Next we have the insane patients. These people are unfortunate; and, while they should never go to jail, yet they are placed in jail for their own protection, as well as the protection of others. These people should be especially provided for. Humanity dictates that everything which can possibly be provided to secure rest and quiet for them, and surroundings in which they can do no injury whatever to themselves or others, should be accorded them.

Another class, and an important one, is that of the hardened criminal,— the man who has been convicted of a serious crime, or the man who is being held on the charge of having committed a crime that was sufficiently villanous to show that he is a professional or hardened criminal, and whom we must secure in a way that will protect the public at large, as well as the officer who has him in custody.

In speaking of errors in the construction of jails, I would speak first of the mistakes that have been made in the jail which is intended to hold the common drunk. It has been generally supposed that all such a prisoner needs is simply a place in which he can be locked up. No attention has been paid to sanitary arrangements. I have in mind at this time one case where a place has been used as a city jail in one of our model Western cities for at least twelve years. This jail consists of three rooms, about seven feet square, each of which has a solid iron door and just one window near the top of the cell, about ten feet above the floor, and which is only twelve inches square. It is an absolute certainty that the sun has never once

shone into any one of those cells. This jail was considered quite good enough for the class of men to be confined there, until recently, when one of the city council was locked up in this place on account of having indulged too freely in the product of the glorious vineyards of his state. He has since then been a hard worker in the cause of a new city jail in that place.

I have in mind another case, very similar. There is a county in one of our Southern territories where the county seat, which is the capital of the territory, has a county jail which would not be a fit pen for a hog. It is an old adobe building, with a small yard like a corral for sheep or cattle. It has been for a long time considered quite good enough. When they had prisoners who, they feared, might escape, the county was put to an enormous expense for guards to see that escape was impossible. Things went along this way for a long time, until a judge of the United States court found it necessary, on account of some litigation in the county, to send the entire board of county commissioners, as well as the county clerk, to prison for contempt of court. It was evidently the intention of the judge to have them confined in the county jail; but these men knew too well what an awful place it was, and, therefore, themselves changed the papers, so that they should be sent to the penitentiary instead of going to the prison which they had provided as a place of punishment for offenders against the law. They have changed their minds with regard to the efficiency of their own county jail.

There is another county, also in one of the Southern territories, which had, until about two years ago, a jail consisting of one adobe room about fifteen feet square. In that room I saw confined at one time fourteen men who had chains riveted on their limbs by a blacksmith. That was three months before court was to sit; and the sheriff expected to have as many more in this place before any of them could be tried for their supposed crimes. That jail was considered perfectly good, or at least good enough for that county, until the intimate friend of one of the members of the board of commissioners was shot and killed by one of the desperadoes then in the jail. The county commissioner was afraid that there was some possibility of the murderer's escape; and he therefore took up the jail question at once, and saw to it that a new jail was built, which, he believed, would hold that or any other bad man. It is too bad that these things have to be brought so close to our own door before we can be made to realize the necessity for proper jails.

Only a short time ago I saw some boys who were confined for a while in the county jail with the most desperate class of prisoners. They were held for a petty offence and for a few days. The braggadocio of the adult prisoners seemed fascinating to them; and I venture that, in the minds of some of the boys, these men were heroes, and became models for them. I remember a case where one boy who was suspected of having some association with his father in a cattle-stealing affair was locked in a cell with just this class of men. He was kept for something like three months awaiting trial in a small jail, with three white cattle thieves, one Apache murderer, one Navajo Indian charged with sheep-stealing, and one man who had attempted, while intoxicated, to kill a woman with a butcher-knife. That boy cannot be blamed very much if he turns out bad.

In speaking of the man who is unfortunate enough to be retained as a witness, there is not a great deal to be said. He is simply unfortunate, but usually old enough and strong enough in character not to be permanently injured in case he has to associate with the tough and dirty class of men. He generally figures that he is unfortunate, and makes the best of it, and nothing is said; but, nevertheless, he should be provided with at least decent quarters.

In speaking of women prisoners, there is much to be said; but one or two examples will be quite sufficient. Only a few months ago, in this glorious state of Kansas, I was in a county jail where there were something like nine men and one woman imprisoned. The woman was kept in an iron cell by herself; but there was nothing to keep her from hearing all the vile talk of the men in the place, and she was separated from them only by iron bars. In this case, I do not believe that this woman was seriously injured in her character by her imprisonment, because she was a hard and villanous woman, and was being held while awaiting trial on the charge of horse-stealing. The fact that she was probably as bad as any of the men in the place offers no excuse for not providing an entirely separate apartment for women.

I saw another case very similar to this down on the Mexican border. The jail in this place consists of a stone building, divided into two rooms about ten feet square. It is surrounded by quite a large yard with a high board fence. In the yard most of the prisoners are allowed to stay, in the day-time. They had in their jail, at that time, a man of somewhat more refinement than the majority of the

prisoners. He was given a cell by himself. There were nine other prisoners, eight Mexicans and a negro woman. The woman seemed to be perfectly at home in the place, and was there only because she had threatened to kill a man. I do not think she was made any worse by associating with the eight Mexicans; but, nevertheless, the county commissioners of that county are certainly not to be upheld in their efforts to economize.

We come next to the provisions made for taking care of the insane. Almost every person who is charged with insanity is, for a short time at least, confined in the county jail. The strongest argument in favor of providing proper quarters for this class of prisoners can be made by simply telling of an occurrence which took place only recently in one of the county jails of the state of Colorado. A woman was imprisoned in what is called the insane cell. I understand that she had lost her reason on account of overwork and worry about her family affairs, and had never done anything in her life to warrant anything but the very best of treatment. The place in which she was kept consisted of a room made of two-inch planks, which had a grated iron door on one side and quite a large window on the other. The glass of this window was on the inside of the cell, and there was nothing between the glass and the prisoner. Being locked in this small room made the poor woman worse than she was, and some time in the night, in an effort to tear the bars from the window, she broke the glass, and in so doing cut her arms and wrist so badly that she slowly bled to death. She was found dead in her cell in the morning, and thus all chance of restoring her to her family was lost because of the negligence and false economy of that county. There are many other cases fully as bad as this, but it is not necessary to relate them. We all know that these people should have the very best care that can possibly be given to any inmate of a jail.

We come now to the class of prisoners which has caused more trouble to officials than any other class; that is, the professional criminal and desperado. It is the man who may have saws and tools of the very finest kind concealed somewhere about his person. This prisoner is the man who will not hesitate to take an official's life, in order to regain his freedom. He is entitled to all the fresh air that can be given and to be confined in a place with perfect sanitary arrangements; but he must also be securely held, and the

officer in charge must be thoroughly protected. Up to within the last thirty or forty years, stone or brick was considered a fit material for making a jail that would hold any class of prisoners; but, as every branch of mechanical industry has advanced, the professional criminal has advanced, so far as mechanical skill is concerned. A brick or stone wall is laughed at by men of this kind. Ordinary iron, which used to be considered strong enough to hold anybody, has been found unfit to hold one of these men for more than a half-hour, if he is left alone. From sanitary reasons, brick and stone cells are now generally condemned.

With a county jail you cannot rely upon guards, because you do not have them. It is only in larger prisons and penitentiaries that enough guards are employed to make any class of jails secure. The average county jail must very frequently be left alone for a number of hours, and it must be made of material which will resist any tool.

There is something marvellous about the manner in which tools reach the inside of a jail. The ingenuity of desperate prisoners is something wonderful. The man suspected and probably guilty of a serious crime is the man who does the most skilful work at jail-breaking. He has nothing to think about except the one thing,—how to get out of that jail. Even though you have methods of working a convicted prisoner, you never can have a law which will allow you to keep a suspected man at hard labor. Therefore, you must provide against his ingenuity. This cannot be done with stone or brick, and can only be done with a material which cannot be cut by any tool. Although we have heard some people who have made a study of prison reform advocate rooms instead of cells, and have heard them criticise what they call "bird-cages," we never have found one of them who could tell you how to keep a man in anything but a tool-proof cell, unless there were plenty of guards provided. In many places where this fact is recognized, it is the only matter considered in the construction of a jail; and frequently the strongest cells are placed in the darkest, dampest corner that can possibly be found.

The jail-builder has tried to overcome this. The jail-builder has made a greater effort in this line than any one else. It is a deplorable fact that until within a few years the jail-builder and contractor worked alone and unaided in the cause of better jails. He worked then and he works now for the money that there is in the

business, or rather the money that he thinks there may be in the business. Nevertheless, he has made great progress. He has given deep study to every point which will make his jail the best. He has taken into consideration security, protection of the officers, sanitary arrangements, and the separation of prisoners. If he could have his way, jails would to-day be almost perfect; but in many cases he is obliged to put what would otherwise be perfect work into some miserable, unfit building, because the finances of the county or city or state will not allow him to make a jail which is really perfect.

A great deal of progress has been made in some states in the jail question. In some of the Eastern states to-day the board of county commissioners or supervisors cannot build a jail without first submitting plans to the state board of charities, which is supposed to be a body of men who have made a thorough study of jail construction. This is one step in advance, but in these same states we find very serious defects in the laws. We find that the state legislators have taken it upon themselves to assume that they are more honest than the county officials, who were perhaps elected by exactly the same people and in exactly the same manner. They have passed a law which compels the county officers, after having adopted a plan which has been approved by the state board of charities, to award the contract to the lowest bidder, regardless of his reputation or the quality of the work that he may show.

Every concern which has been in business long enough to be fit to bid upon a jail has made a great study of jail construction. It has tried to protect the result of its efforts by patents, and these patents are not for the public at large to use. The owners have them for their own benefit. An architect cannot specify them; and the result is that each architect must become an inventor, and attempt even in his first jail to make something that will surpass the result of years of labor on the part of the very best mechanics in the country. This, we know, is impossible for him to do; but he does produce something, and then the work must be given to the man who makes the lowest figure. The result is that everybody bidding on this work must try, if he wants to get the contract, to cut it down in every manner possible. You cannot produce the best jail by trying to save expense at every corner. It is our experience that nearly all of the county officials who have in charge this contract work are honest,

rumors to the contrary notwithstanding. We frequently find them too economical to spend the money necessary to build a proper jail. This difficulty has been overcome where the plans have been submitted to a board who have made a thorough study of the needs of each and every county in their state. We believe that they should be the judges as to what is the lowest figure. The lowest actual figure is frequently the one which, in the end, is the very highest to the county; and we believe that, if the law was simply changed in this one respect, the very best of jails would be produced. We believe that a general plan should be adopted, which would cover all sanitary propositions and allow every bidder to apply his own detail plans and specifications. This would give the county the benefit of the labors of men who have devoted a lifetime to the building of jails, and give it the privilege of accepting the best and lowest bid. In this way the progress made by these states would not be undone because they must buy the cheapest. "Cheap" is a bad word, especially when it comes to making a permanent improvement.

V.

Prisons and Reformatories.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

BY ROBERT W. McCLAUGHRY,

WARDEN U.S. PENITENTIARY, FORT LEAVENWORTH, KAN.

In offering this report on the condition of prisons and reformatories for adults in the United States, I express the regret of the committee that its chairman, Warden Chamberlain, of Michigan, has been prevented by circumstances beyond his control from preparing and presenting it.

Since it was ascertained definitely that he could not be present, there has not been sufficient time to ascertain by correspondence with the different states what changes, if any, have taken place in their methods of prison and reformatory administration. I have fortunately, however, been afforded access to the reports prepared for the International Prison Congress of 1900, and presented through the Hon. S. J. Barrows, Commissioner for the United States. From these it is ascertained that no marked change has taken place in the condition of state institutions as reported to the Conference one year ago.

It is impossible to report upon the prison statistics of the United States, for the reason that, outside of the census bureau, no machinery exists for securing, tabulating, and digesting the statistics of crime. I cordially agree with Commissioner Barrows that such statistics ought to be compiled annually through Congress. Correct classification of crimes in different states is almost impossible, for the reason that changes in the number of arrests or convictions in different years are frequently the result of changes in legislation; and the statistics for that reason do not show whether the offences themselves have really increased or decreased.

So far as prisons are concerned, the congregate and separate systems are still maintained in the states that originally adopted them. The principal advances in penology have occurred among the reformatories of the different states, and the adoption of the parole system, or system of indeterminate sentence in the state prisons of a number of states, because of its success in the reformatories. The changes in legislation in the different states have tended mainly toward carrying out reformatory ideas by application of the indeterminate sentence to the state prisons.

Within the last few years the government prison, or United States penitentiary, has been claiming the notice of the public; and it is believed that something concerning the attitude of the United States toward the penitentiary system will be as interesting as anything that could be embodied in this report. For the principal part of the following information I am indebted to Major Frank Strong, General Agent for United States Prisons.

It appears from the Attorney-General's reports that the subject of a United States penitentiary was first mentioned in 1884, when the attention of Congress was called to the objections to the existing practice of confining prisoners in state institutions, saying that "the national government should erect and control a penitentiary in which to confine its own prisoners. It would be better both for society and the prisoners themselves."

In 1886 the report states that "the need of a government penitentiary becomes more apparent each year. Apart from the fact that the United States should have a model penal institution of its own, the necessity for securing accommodations for the convicts, in view of the agitation of questions touching the contract system of prison labor, and other causes, will soon become imperative." The report earnestly suggests to Congress the advisability of completing a government penitentiary, and, if possible, a government reformatory.

In 1887 the report calls the attention of Congress to the abolishment of the contract system by legislative enactment in several states, and the passage of a recent act by Congress forbidding the employment or hiring out of United States prisoners on contract, refers to previous reports relative to the importance of erecting at least one United States penitentiary, and again presents this subject to Congress. Reference is also made to the large amounts paid to state prisons for the subsistence of federal convicts, and intimates that

the cost of supporting them in a federal penitentiary should not be considered an objection to the erection of such an institution. At this time, 1887, the report shows that there were an average of about 1,200 prisoners in the various penitentiaries serving sentences.

In 1888 the suggestions of the previous year concerning the erection of a United States penitentiary were substantially repeated, and the total number of prisoners during the year is given as 1,294.

In the report for 1889 the recommendations concerning the erection of a United States penitentiary are still more earnestly made. Attention is called to the increase in the rates paid the various state institutions for the subsistence of federal prisoners, and to the fact that the legislatures in several of the States have enacted laws to the effect that federal prisoners convicted outside of the state would not be received. The total number of prisoners is given as 1,252.

In 1890 the recommendations of the previous year were reiterated. Number of prisoners, 1,304.

In 1891 reference is made to the act passed by the previous Congress, authorizing the construction of three United States prisons, and recommending that appropriations contemplated by, but omitted from, the act be made, so that the work might go forward. The number of prisoners is given as 1,536.

In 1892 attention is again called to the act providing for the erection of three prisons, and asking for an appropriation. Number of prisoners, 1,810.

In 1893 the same recommendations in regard to United States penitentiaries were repeated. Number of prisoners, 1,881.

In 1894 recommendations are again repeated. Number of prisoners, 2,241.

In 1895 recommendations repeated. Number of prisoners, 2,516. Reference is made to the act of Congress of the previous year for the transfer of the military prison at Fort Leavenworth from the War Department to the Department of Justice, to be designated as a United States penitentiary. This seems to be the first substantial effect of the long agitation concerning a federal penitentiary, and was gladly accepted as a nucleus, at least, for a system of United States prisons.

In 1896 the total number of prisoners given is 3,012. At this time about 500 prisoners were confined in the United States Penitentiary

at Fort Leavenworth, leaving about 2,500 to be accommodated in the various state prisons. The necessity for at least one additional United States penitentiary, to be located in the South, is earnestly recommended.

In 1897 the number of prisoners is given as 3,077. The necessity for additional United States prisons is again urged, and the evils of the practice of scattering federal prisoners throughout the states and territories called to the attention of Congress. Reference is made to the fact that a site for a federal prison in the South can probably be secured at a very small expense.

In 1899 the number of prisoners at the end of the year is given as 3,137, 779 being confined in the United States Penitentiary at Fort Leavenworth. Reference is made to the proposed United States Penitentiary at Atlanta, Ga., arrangements for which have been effected since the last report, in pursuance of the acts of congress providing for that purpose. An eligible site has been selected and presented to the government by the city of Atlanta. The tract contains about three hundred acres, about half a mile from the city limits, on one of the principal thoroughfares. At the present writing the plans for the prison have been completed, and contracts have been let for the erection of the buildings. These plans contemplate the erection of a prison complete; but the appropriation will not be sufficient to build a penitentiary, as originally contemplated, the main building being omitted from the present plans. The two wings and the boiler-house, lighting plant, dining-room, etc., are to be erected, so that the institution, on the present plans, will be a complete prison, for the accommodation of about 600 convicts.

The United States government has now in operation a penitentiary at Fort Leavenworth, Kan., which is the old military prison, arranged to accommodate eight hundred and fifty convicts. Under the authority of the Department of Justice and the direction of the warden, a new prison, designed to supersede the old military prison, is in course of construction on a site selected on the military reservation, and about two miles nearer to the city of Leavenworth than the present prison. The convicts sentenced to the old prison are largely employed in building the new. For that purpose they are marched from the old prison to the new site each working day, and are there employed in grading, excavating, building walls, making brick, laying foundations, etc.; while about one hundred of them

are employed in quarrying stone, which is transported a distance of a mile from the quarry to the new prison site. The necessity of marching to and from the old prison to carry on this work is recognized as a serious drawback to its progress, and efforts are being made to secure from the next Congress a sufficient appropriation and authority for the construction of two interior cell houses by contract. When these are completed, it will be possible to move the present convict population from the old prison to the new, and employ its entire time in completing the same. The new prison, when completed, will contain not less than twelve hundred cells, and will be capable of accommodating that number of prisoners comfortably. The prison walls enclose over sixteen acres of ground, giving ample room for all necessary buildings and shops, beside leaving sufficient space for exercise, drill, etc.

When the new prison is completed, which will take a number of years yet, it is believed the prisoners can be successfully employed in caring for the government reservation,— grading, making roads, reclaiming waste land, farming, gardening, etc.,— so that through the labor of the United States prisoners the military reservation of Fort Leavenworth can be brought to a point of perfection not yet attained by any similar post in the United States or the world.

The writer ventures to hope also that by the time the new prison is completed the Congress of the United States will have reached the conclusion that the indeterminate sentence and parole system are as applicable to United States prisoners as to those of the separate States, and will adopt such legislation as will enable the United States penitentiaries to become the model prisons of the world.

VI.

The Feeble-minded and Epileptic.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

BY DR. F. M. POWELL, GLENWOOD, IA.

In presenting a report as chairman of this section, it has seemed advisable to refer briefly to (1) the feeble-minded, (2) backward children, (3) epileptics.

The Feeble-minded.

The main features pertaining to the care of the feeble-minded have, for years past, been presented to this Conference, and therefore need but brief mention. Progress continues. Established institutions for their care are growing, expanding, and solving problems for their betterment, with recorded reasons for public provision. There are now twenty-six public institutions for them. Early encouragement to make industrial work a feature of training in institutions for this class has been followed by happy experiences, until now it is fully recognized as one of the most important factors in the intelligent management of capable inmates; not alone for their physical and intellectual benefit, but as a means of contributing to their own support. While it is the plain duty of the public to provide opportunities for the development of defectives, it is no less its duty to insist that these defectives shall contribute by labor to their own support in so far as they are capable of doing so without detriment to themselves.

As these institutions grow older and increase in population, the inmates naturally fall into three main groups, namely, (1) school division, (2) custodial division, (3) asylum division. The first comprises the young educable class; the second, the capable adults drawn from the first group or admitted at an age beyond the first division; the

third comprises the lower types, the practically incapable. The two latter, especially, accumulate rapidly; and the need for custodial care of fatuous females and incapable males is now well established. Continued experience confirms the previous statement often made before this Conference regarding them, namely, that permanent detention with opportunities and incentives for productive labor is a means of prevention.

To meet these demands, cottage extensions are being added, shops enlarged, land areas increased; and, with these improved avenues for educational labor, I am confident that more is being done in our institutions along remunerative industrial lines and consequent betterment of the inmates at the present time than ever before. I do not wish to be understood as overlooking the primary functions of our institutions, protection to society and protection to the individual,— protection to society by detaining those who by their presence at large interfere with the harmony of normal society; and protection to the individual by providing a change of environment, tending to develop him and to establish worthy habits.

The colony plan so earnestly advocated years ago, by Dr. Kerlin, is materializing, notably in Massachusetts, California, and Ohio, where large acreages have been procured, thereby permitting the development of this plan. So far as I know, the only state deviating from the general plan of colonizing all classes and ages of feeble-minded under one general management is New York. In that state, in addition to the institution at Syracuse which cares for educable children, there has been maintained for a number of years a separate institution at Newark for custodial females, and more recently a custodial asylum for adults of both sexes at Rome. The tendency in organizing new institutions is to follow the colony idea, and designate them as colonies rather than institutions.

The telegram received at the Cincinnati Conference permitting the happy announcement by Miss Perry, that the Missouri legislature, then in session, had passed an act providing for the establishment of a colony for the care and treatment of the feeble-minded and epileptics of that state, was followed later by the information that South Dakota had passed a similar act, and that Texas had fallen into line by making provision for an epileptic colony, to be located at Abilene.

At the state conference of charities held in Pueblo, Colo., in March, this year, the question of providing public aid for these depend-

ent classes was considered. The sentiment manifested indicated that in a reasonably near future Colorado would be numbered as one of the states recognizing the necessity of public relief for the classes under consideration by providing an institution for them.

Practically, the advancement of the year is an increased intent to mould our institutions in lines more nearly resembling the home than formerly; and this is the essential function of the colony.

Backward Children.

Within the last decade a growing interest in this class has developed into tangible action. Special schools in certain localities are now provided for them in connection with the common school system. These children are referred to as "backward, nervous, overtaxed, enfeebled, foot-of-the-class children," etc. The list includes many sense-defectives. These cases are not positively feeble-minded, but many of them skirt the border line of abnormality; and, in the absence of intelligent training at the proper period, arrest of development is liable to occur, and there is a tendency for them to gravitate and become classed with the subnormal, with chances of drifting into vagrancy, etc., eventually requiring public support. This class does not include children with such marked deficiencies that they cannot be brought up to the ordinary standard of intelligence; they are normal, but impeded or embarrassed in mental growth, owing to psychical or physical impairment or neglect,— environment.

As showing the percentage of the class under consideration found in our common schools, Professor Will S. Monroe, in the examination of 10,000 school-children in California, found 10 per cent. to be mentally dull and 3 per cent. actually feeble-minded. Dr. Francis Warner, the active member of the Royal Commission of the blind, deaf, and other classes requiring exceptional modes of education, reports of 100,000 school children that 7 per cent. were dull and backward and 1.6 per cent. required special care and training, — in other words, were feeble-minded. From this it will be seen that their numbers call for serious consideration.

It is but just to note here that Dr. Howe, as early as the year 1845, took a number of feeble-minded and trained them in connection with special schools for the deaf and blind, which proved to be

an initiatory step in bringing about special provision for the mentally feeble in institutions arranged especially for their care and training. These early schools were founded on strictly educational lines and observed by Dr. Howe as a link in the chain of common schools, the last indeed, but still "a necessary link to embrace all the children in the state." Experiences during the past few years on the part of public institutions and observations made in the public schools, particularly under the stimulus of child study, have led to the conclusion on the part of many that there is yet another link to make the chain complete, that of providing special day schools for backward children.

The *Journal of Psycho-asthenics** refers to this feature of training backward and feeble-minded children, under the head of "Elementary Education of Defective Children," by special classes in London, through information given by Dr. Shuttleworth. There are in London and Wales about 42,000 children, or 1 per cent. of the elementary school class between the ages of seven and thirteen, who are too weak mentally to be taught in ordinary day schools, but are neither idiotic or imbeciles. In London alone there are over 8,000 such children. This estimate is based upon the inquiries made by the departmental committee of defective children, of which Dr. Warner was the special inspector.

The report further states that quarterly examinations are held by Dr. May Berry and Dr. G. E. Shuttleworth for the admission of pupils to the classes, for the promotion of those who have improved sufficiently to enable them to work in the senior department, and for the exclusion of those who after a fair trial prove themselves to have been sufficiently benefited by the instruction given, to warrant their retention in the day schools. Many more interesting facts are given in this report.

The London School Board opened its first "special class" for the instruction of feeble-minded children in 1892. There were in May, 1899, "special classes" in London and other towns, as follows: London, special class accommodation for 1,826 children; Bristol, for 67 children; Birmingham, for 78 children; Bradford, for 81 children; Brighton, for 44 children; Nottingham, for 120 children; Leicester, for 141 children; Plymouth, for 68 children; Bolton, for 36 children.

* The representative journal of the Association of Superintendents of Institutions for Feeble-minded Children.

Manchester, Burnley, Bury, and other towns are in process of providing special classes or specially trained teachers.

The cost of each child in a special class is more than twice as much as that of a child at an ordinary school, requiring, as they do, individual instruction.

It is to be noted that the term "feeble-minded" in England denotes simply backward children; while in the United States it is used as a generic term, and includes all grades of imbecility.

Dr. Shuttleworth, in his work on "Mentally Deficient Children," does not claim priority for England in making scientific investigations of abnormalities in school-children. In 1881 there was an auxiliary class established in connection with the municipal schools of Brunswick for the benefit of mentally inferior school-children. Similar schools have been established at Cologne, Düsseldorf, Crefeld, Jena, Dresden, and Leipzig. The Scandinavian countries also have classes for special instruction of similar children. Dr. Kellar, of Copenhagen, in his elaborate organization, also provides special training for them. The University of Chicago now has a department for the study and education of nervous and backward children.

It is interesting to note the report by Ida J. Scott of the vacation school for the feeble-minded in Chicago, in which she says, "A new departure in educational work was made this summer in the opening of a vacation school for feeble-minded children at the University of Chicago Settlement, 4634 Ashland Avenue. It is due to the earnest work of Miss Mary McDowell, who so long felt that something should be done for the feeble-minded of our city. In response to her appeal to different members of the Chicago Woman's Club, $75 was placed at her disposal for this experiment; and the number of pupils was limited."

A recent statement informs us that day schools for these mentally feeble children have been established in Providence, R.I., in Philadelphia, Pa., and in Boston, Mass.

It appears that these schools form a much-needed and valuable link between schools for normal children and the palpably feeble-minded. By these means an opportunity is given for removing special cases from the mass of public school children and giving them suitable training, and the feeble-minded or subnormal are earlier recognized and referred to public institutions for special care and training. It is true that it is a delicate task to say who is ab-

solutely feeble-minded; yet it is an incumbent duty on the public to determine this, and I am confident that it can be done satisfactorily, disaccord with environment, lack in powers of attention and co-ordination being the starting-point. I remember a statement by some of our pioneer workers to this effect: that the object of institutions for feeble-minded children was to so train and develop them that they would act and move among people without attracting special attention. The fact that so large a percentage of children in our public schools is noticeably dull and backward also confirms the necessity of medical inspection of school-children,— a custom which is gradually being adopted in some of our cities.

It is generally concluded that children with mental deficiency or nervous peculiarity will have a better chance of improvement when classed with children of like mental calibre than when they are forced to work in classes of alert normal children. Not that they should be prevented from mingling with the more active intellects, but that they should have training adapted to their intellectual capacity without competition with the alert. It is equally true that they should not be classed with the imbecile.

I have had many letters from teachers in Iowa, referring to stupid and nervous children in their classes, stating that they could not find time or convenience for giving them the individual instruction that their condition required. On the arrival of these subjects at the institution they were usually found to have been noticeably feeble-minded from birth or by later accident. A smaller percentage of them were recognized as children with ability, but backward from natural causes or by degrees of sense-impairment or from environment. Individual attention usually reclaimed them. Some of these, after years of training, I have placed in the common schools of our city, where they ranked favorably with their more fortunate companions. In fact, in one or two instances they stood the highest in their classes. Others were sent home with the suggestion to place them in the common schools; or, if past the plastic period, they took their place in life, and are now successful citizens. This leads me to say that by analysis of our school division, containing less than half of our school population, I find about 6 per cent. of children who could have been carried along with the common-school system, provided they had had an opportunity for receiving individual instruction at the proper period.

I do not wish to be understood as favoring the sending out of absolutely mental defectives. At different times in the past, I have stated that the higher-grade imbeciles were more dangerous to turn out upon the public than the lower types, for the reason that they are more apt to fall into vicious lines and to propagate their kind.

If the special school methods spoken of can be fully carried out, fewer applications will be made to houses of refuge and a less demand for reformatory schools. I believe this work to be in the line of prevention.

Perhaps the most radical idea on this subject is that of John Kennedy, superintendent of city schools of Batavia, N.Y., who says that "individual instruction is the ministering to the overtaxed, enfeebled, discouraged, and reeling members of the little school army." It is his belief that by proper individual attention all the failing children may be saved; and he further states that he believes them to be the very best element of our population, when understood and properly trained. His conclusions are that the children need both class recitation and individual instruction combined. To carry this out, he places two teachers in a room, one to have control of the brighter or more active children, and the other to have special charge of individual instruction for the tardy. After a year and a half's experience, he states that dragging has almost ceased. The prime result of this method is happiness, which promotes development on the part of the children; and it also avoids fatigue for the teachers.

It is evident that there is much progress being made in work of this character, which will result in great betterment for our schools. The great need is efficient teachers. Demand for special workers will probably result in increasing the supply.

The plan is yet in its experimental stage, but results obtained have been so satisfactory that material progress may be confidently anticipated. Although there are differences in opinion as to methods in detail, yet there is a unanimity of opinion regarding the merits of any plan which affords relief for all grades of educable children.

Dr. Warner says: "The presence of some fault in a child does not necessarily show him to be either a weak child or wanting in mental power. I have had many opportunities to verify this statement. The question is how to overcome the fault."

The Epileptic.

Ohio.— As early as the year 1868 the State Board of Charities of Ohio called the attention of the legislature of that state to the numbers and unhappy condition of the epileptic as found by them in the poor-farm buildings, hospitals for insane, and other institutions of the state; and from that time on until 1890 they persevered in their efforts to obtain relief for them. At the session of 1890 the Ohio legislature passed an act for the establishment of a colony for epileptics; and it was established in that year at Gallipolis, Ohio.

Massachusetts.— Prior to this result, special hospital cottages for epileptic children had been in operation in Baldwinsville, Mass., since 1882. It was owned by a private benevolent corporation, which later received state aid. In 1895 Massachusetts extended aid by establishing a state hospital for them at Monson, assigning for this purpose the land and buildings formerly occupied as a state primary school, and appropriating $160,000 for alterations and additions to meet the new requirements.

New York.— Dr. Frederick Peterson, of New York, became interested in the condition of the epileptic through experience with them in hospital practice, which prompted him to visit the colony for epileptics at Bielefeld in Westphalia, Germany, in the year 1886. His writings on this subject, following his investigations, attracted much attention, resulting in the establishment of the now celebrated Craig Colony at Sonyea, N.Y., in 1894. The New York law provides for the admission of sane, dependent epileptics, of all ages, who are residents of the state. The colony is provided with 1,872 acres of land, and is equipped with cottages, schools, shops, etc. In the main, it is following the plan at Bielefeld.

New Jersey.— New Jersey passed a resolution in 1895 for the appointment of a commission to inquire into the numbers and condition of the epileptic, and report to the legislature. In 1898 the legislature established a state village for epileptics at Skillman.

Texas.— In 1896 a paper by Dr. F. S. White was read before the State Medical Society of Texas, which aroused very general interest. This was followed by legislative action creating a colony, and 640 acres of land was secured near Abilene for this purpose.

Pennsylvania.— The Pennsylvania training-school for the feeble-

minded at Elwyn has for years past maintained two cottages for epileptics, one for boys and one for girls, in all 203 inmates.

The lunacy committee of the State Board of Charities of Pennsylvania has, since 1893, favored state aid for the epileptic class; but as yet none has been provided. There are maintained, however, a hospital and colony at Oakbourne, and the Passavant Memorial Home for Epileptics near Rochester, in the valley of the Ohio River. The latter was opened in 1895, the former in 1898.

Maryland.— Maryland has no state provision; the work of caring for the epileptics is partially attempted by private benevolence at the Silver Cross Home, Port Deposit, Md., but only women and girls are admitted.

California.— In California separate buildings are provided for epileptics on the large estate controlled by the institution for the feeble-minded, and in 1890 the first cottage for this purpose was opened and occupied.

Michigan.— After many years of agitation, Michigan was permitted to establish a home on the colony plan for the care and training of the feeble-minded and epileptic at Lapeer. The buildings were formally opened in 1895.

Wisconsin.— In 1895 Wisconsin organized a state colony for epileptics and feeble-minded, 600 acres being secured near Chippewa Falls. The plan calls for entirely separate buildings and facilities for the care of each sex of epileptics, these to be separate and distinct from the cottages for the feeble-minded.

Minnesota.— In 1896 a special department was opened in the institution for feeble-minded children in Minnesota for epileptics. The board of managers for this institution expressed its opinion that the state should, in the near future, separate the epileptic from the feeble-minded and provide a special colony for them.

Illinois.— The State Board of Public Charities of Illinois in 1896 estimated that there are 8,000 epileptics in that state, and expressed its opinion that it would be advisable for the state to maintain an independent colony for them, and no longer permit the hospitals for the insane, the institution for feeble-minded or various county poor-farms to care for them. Following this report, a bill for this purpose was submitted to the general assembly in 1897, but failed to pass. In 1899 the legislature appointed the State Board of Charities to investigate and secure options on desirable locations, and

submit plans, etc., to the next session (1901). Favorable action is anticipated at that time.

Connecticut.— While there is no special provision for this class in Connecticut, the sentiment of the trustees of the hospitals for the insane has been expressed that advantage would be derived by the state from the establishment of a village or colony for them near some industrial centre.

Nebraska.— The state of Nebraska cares for a number of epileptics in the same classes with feeble-minded children at Beatrice; but Superintendent Sprague deplores the necessity for this, and advocates separate care.

Kansas.— In the institution for feeble-minded at Winfield there were 27 epileptics in a population of 110, as given in the report of 1896.

Indiana.— In 1898 the legislature passed an act establishing an institution for epileptics, but the bill was vetoed by the governor.

West Virginia.— Five years ago a bill for the purpose of caring for incurables was defeated in the legislature, but was taken up at the next session, and passed. The managers contemplate adding a building for epileptics as soon as means will allow.

Virginia.— Through the indefatigable efforts of Dr. W. F. Drewry, superintendent of the State Central Hospital for the Insane, the numbers and condition of the epileptics in Virginia were accurately laid before the legislature of that state by a special commission. In 1897–98 a bill was introduced, but, owing to a lack of means, was not passed. The same commission was continued to report at the next session. Dr. Drewry, writing in 1899, says, "I have no doubt that in a few years an epileptic colony will be established in Virginia."

Iowa.— There is no special or separate provision in Iowa for the care and treatment of this class. Although the law does not specifically provide for their admission, it has been the custom to receive and care for them at the institution for feeble-minded children, where they at present constitute 25 per cent. of the population. In 1898 a bill was introduced in the legislature, making provision for them on the colony plan. This passed in the house, but failed in the senate. The Board of Control of State Institutions, in their first report made to the legislature (1900), advocated the creation of a state colony for epileptics. The matter was taken up near the end of the session, but failed to receive substantial recognition, ap-

parently due to rush of business in the closing hours of the session. The sentiment expressed on the part of superintendents of hospitals for the insane, medical societies, physicians, and even the general public, insures favorable and early action in the interest of this numerous afflicted class.

While it is true that many epileptics have found refuge in the various institutions for feeble-minded children in the different states, and a number in the hospitals for the insane, yet it has been long felt that this commingling is injudicious, and prejudicial to the interests of all.

By reference to a recent admirable work on "The Care of Epileptics," by Hon. W. P. Letchworth, I find that philanthropists in England have become aroused to the necessity of making provision for epileptics; and through this stimulus favorable legislation is expected in their behalf on the part of the government. It is mentioned that the first home for this class is at Maghull, seven miles from Liverpool, and was established in 1888. A number of small homes are referred to, showing that something is being done for them on the island; but as yet this country (England) has not kept pace in this cause with the Continent. To Germany may be ascribed primitive efforts for the amelioration of the epileptic. Mr. Letchworth, referring to this, mentions the establishment of a home for this class as early as 1773; but it was not until about the year 1838, contemporaneously with the effort put forth by that eminent philanthropist, Dr. Edwin Seguin, of Paris, to educate the idiot class. Thereafter, in the numerous asylums that were provided for idiots, epileptics were generally received, more especially the young.

In 1862 Pastor John Bost, of La Force, France, added a cottage for epileptic girls to a small colony he had founded and maintained for deficient children; and this individual effort formed the basis from which the now well-known colony system originated. In 1885 Dr. Reimer founded an asylum in Görlitz, Silesia, exclusively for epileptics.

In 1857 a refuge was founded for this class at La Teppe, France. An institution for epileptics was founded in 1862 in Würtemberg, and one in 1866 by the South-west Conference of Inner Missions at Stelten, Würtemberg, in connection with that of idiots.

The colony for epileptics that has attained the greatest prominence is the one at Bielefeld, now caring for about 3,500 souls.

It was founded in 1867, under the management of Pastor von Bodelschwingh. One of his ruling ideas is that the only healthy normal life is one of work. Every one at this colony, unless too ill, is at once given something to do. His work is suited to his ability and, so far as possible, to his taste. The ladies and gentlemen who are paying $500 a year for board and care sometimes rebel at first. "Why should we work?" they ask him: "we are not used to such things, and we pay well for our keeping." He replies gently: "The privilege of work is a part of what you pay for. Work is God's law, not mine. No one can be well and happy who does not work, and you *must work*." So, no matter how much they pay, they put in their eight hours a day, and sleep and eat the better for it. Others who have visited this colony refer to the value of labor as being exemplified in the diversity of industrial teaching going on. The constant activity manifested is suggestive of a veritable beehive. Woodwork of various kinds is carried on, tailoring, farming, boot and shoe manufacturing, etc. The result is a systematic training in productive energy. The beneficial effects of work as a therapeutic agent can hardly be estimated; it is worth more than all the drugs in the kingdom. This, with selected and well-regulated diet, produces a wonderful effect upon the health and morals of the patients. I refer to this colony particularly, as in this and other countries already similar ones are being established and conducted on the same principles.

From the date mentioned up to the present time, numbers of institutions in Europe have been established, notably in Germany, Prussia, Switzerland, and Sweden, all recognizing the colony inaugurated at Bielefeld as the model plan.

Of what does a colony consist? Dr. Peterson, of New York, recognized as authority on the subject of epilepsy, says: "There is but one kind of an institution that can meet the case of those who suffer with this disease. No asylum, no large hospital, no single vast building in a large city, is appropriate for the purpose. It must be an establishment combining many unusual features. It must have schools and teachers for the young epileptic. It must have offices, shops of all kinds, stores, dairy, farm, gardens, granaries; for, as they grow up, these patients should acquire trades or professions. It must have a group of small hospitals and asylum buildings, where such as are sick or mentally infirm can be cared

for. It must have skilled physicians. It must have a church, amusement hall, gymnasium, and bathing establishment. It must have, finally, a pathological laboratory, presided over by the keenest pathologist obtainable, so that, in the course of time, a cause and cure may be discovered for this terrible disease. Such a place would not be a hospital, in the ordinary sense of the term. It would be a village in itself, a colony for epileptics."

The foregoing is descriptive of a fully developed colony, which requires many years to complete. The cost of a colony in its inception should not be so great as to deter the attempt at establishing one. In fact, I believe a mistake would be made in trying to accomplish the ultimate object too early. I would emphasize the importance of a colony being located in a rural district, within a reasonable distance of a city of at least second-class size, centrally located, with good water, and natural drainage, things so vital to the best interests of any institution. Through my own observation in the management of the feeble-minded and epileptic I am convinced of the advisability of providing a large acreage, at least one acre for each prospective inmate. This is desirable both from a hygienic and economical view.

Secure a large tract of land first, and gradually construct buildings, giving ample time and experience to mould the work for the greatest good. Experience at Bielefeld and the Craig Colony demonstrates that the patients themselves can be so trained that they will be able to construct many of the buildings as they are required. Since occupation is the prime factor in the treatment of these people, this plan would seem wise, because it affords an opportunity for intelligent labor, which is valuable as a therapeutic agent and in the economy of the colony.

Sufficient reliable data have been obtained to verify the statement that about 1 in 600 of the population is epileptic.

Adequate experience proves that the colony plan is the hopeful one for the betterment of this class, and that hygienic treatment gives the best results. Occupation and diet will do more than drugs.

NOTE.— The present status of the epileptic has been thoughtfully investigated by Hon. W. P. Letchworth, and published in his recent and valuable work on "Care and Treatment of Epileptics."

VII.

The Insane.

PUBLIC POLICY IN THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

BY REV. S. G. SMITH, D.D., LL.D., ST. PAUL, MINN.

In the absence of Mr. Homer Folks, who is doing work in Cuba, I have been asked to act as chairman of this committee. I have not had an opportunity to present a report to the other members of the committee for their concurrence; and, consequently, no one but the speaker will be responsible for the views that I shall express. I desire to speak in such a way as to furnish an introduction to the general question under discussion.

The nature of insanity is not yet fully determined. It is a disturbance of the mind, the conduct, and the brain. That it manifests itself in the brain as either functional or organic disorder there can be no question; but, notwithstanding the great advances which have been made in physiological psychology, there is practically no information as to the form of brain disturbance which necessarily produces the phenomena we call insanity. One point, however, is certain; and this is the only one I care to emphasize in this introductory statement.

Insanity may begin in a disturbance of either the conduct, the brain, or the mind; and the extended abnormality of either one over a sufficient period of time results in insanity.

But this discussion is not to be theoretical, for it would not become a layman to attempt to present the merely medical side of the question. It is rather a practical discussion of methods. There are three questions under which can be grouped what there is to be said. First, Who shall pay the bills for the care of the insane? Second, By what methods shall their care be conducted? Third, By what agencies can these methods be made most effective? The

importance of the first question is disclosed by the fact that the care of the insane is the largest philanthropic burden of the state. In those states where the care is at all efficient, it is far larger than any other item of public expense. In this country there are three possible sources of income: the bills may be paid by the family, by the county or parish, or by the state. There are objections to each method. The care of the insane by the family is resultant in so much pauperism and distress that it must be at once dismissed. It is only among barbaric peoples that the care of the insane is left solely to the family. The care of the insane by the counties has resulted even in the best states, such as Iowa, in gross neglect, in the crowding of almshouses; and even the jails are made a refuge for these poor unfortunates. Where the state assumes the entire expense of caring for the insane, the result is that the numbers are swelled by a large number of so-called "senile dements," who properly belong to the poorhouses, where they are paupers, or in the home, where their friends have means. There are certainly objections, and very serious ones, to either of the three methods suggested; and, without entering into any further discussion, I desire to express the opinion that the very best results can be obtained by the combination of the three possible sources of income.

By what methods shall their care be conducted? It is obvious that, if we could find the method that would at the same time do the most for the unfortunate and make the economic burden for the community the lightest, that is what we want. Some facts that are practically universally recognized would seem to furnish a great deal of guidance. In the first place, it is well known that there is no disease where speedy treatment is more surely indicated than the case of incipient insanity. Indeed, in many cases the disturbances might have been overcome if treated in time, and the patient restored to his normal relations in society, which by neglect have become a burden for years upon society, as well as resulting in the shocking ruin of a human life. Detention hospitals, therefore, are at once indicated as a first necessity; and they should exist in every considerable centre of population. Access should be easy and without the necessity of legal process. Their nearness to relatives and friends, the ease with which they can be regularly inspected, would prevent any possible abuses and the improper incarceration of the insane. It may be well here to state that there is far more

of the latter in morbid literature than in fact. Another fact that is a clear indication of the method that should be adopted is that the hope of cure diminishes as the insanity continues. If a patient is to recover from insanity, the recovery will usually occur during the first year. After the end of the second year, if he recovers, it will not be as the result of direct medical treatment. Since the period of real hospital treatment for the insane is comparatively brief, this fact indicates that every necessary agency to restore the acute insane should be utilized, regardless of expense. This is the wisest economy. It is far better for the state to spend money in a generous way for one year than have the insane man as a permanent charge during his life. This proposition involves a generous and varied diet, baths of various kinds, massage, electricity, and every other agency that can be shown to be useful.

In the next place, too much insistence cannot be laid upon the need for individual treatment. There should not be more than two or three acute patients to one nurse. The temperament, the organization, and the changing conditions from day to day of each patient should be carefully noted. You can as well measure out treatment on general principles for pneumonia as you can for insanity.

It would seem certain that the therapeutic value of work has not received sufficient attention. Attractive manual labor in various forms brings the body to a normal condition, favorably affects the circulation of the blood, assists digestion, is a better sleep-maker than hypnotics, and, above all, furnishes normal occupation for the diseased thoughts and emotions. Any care of the insane that does not propose work for the patients that have sufficient physical strength is clearly lacking.

There is another matter which has never received, so far as I know, sufficient attention. The periodicity of insanity has been a favored doctrine with specialists. In practice discharged patients are returned to hospitals and asylums again and again. Sufficient attention has not been paid to the importance of environment after discharge. The two potent factors in insanity are, first, the neurotic organization of the individual, and, second, the stress furnished by the circumstances of life under which the organization breaks. Where a patient is sent back again to the same situation as that where the insanity was induced, it is precisely the same process as to send a patient who is convalescent from a fever to live in a

swamp. The convalescents' home and the gradual restoration of the patient to normal conditions is clearly indicated.

What can be said about the prevention of insanity? I leave to others wiser than myself the discussion of the subject of marriage. The control or guidance of marriage by the state is a problem I do not propose to attempt to solve. The question of prevention is a question of the care and training of childhood. Where the neurotic diathesis is evident, the physician should, in the first place, indicate to the parents the dangers of every kind that lurk in the constitution of such boy or girl; and, as soon as the child reaches years of discretion, he should himself be informed of the dangers that threaten him. Indulgences that are permitted to ordinary people are denied him. His life must be surrounded by moral hygiene. He himself must be carefully trained to habits of self-control. Occupations, burdens, and duties which are normal to the average man must be avoided by him.

In an important paper on this subject, prepared by Dr. Stephen Smith, of New York, in the year 1893, he urges the relation of the family physician to the question of the commitment of the insane; but that paper does not sufficiently emphasize the incapacity of the average family physician for duties to society in this great undertaking. As a matter of fact, the ordinary physician knows little or nothing of the subject of insanity; nor is he to blame for this ignorance to anything like the extent that the ordinary medical college is to be criticised. There is neither sufficient didactic nor clinical instruction in mental and nervous diseases. The prevention of insanity will not be secured until there is wider knowledge of the subject, both on the part of the profession and the laity. With these suggestions I must leave the subject of methods, pausing only to add that, under the present conditions, it is thought to be a successful institution that can discharge 30 per cent. of its patients as restored to health. In the best institutions abroad 50 per cent. is regarded as average success. In the opinion of the best alienists a still higher percentage of recoveries might be secured by early treatment and proper methods. It is not too much to say that the burden of one-half the chronic insane in this country is due to inefficient treatment in our hospitals.

There is not much time left me for the discussion of the third question, By what agencies can these methods be made most effec-

tive? The classical method of building an institution in block, making of it a huge prison palace, stands over against the various expedients known as the pavilion system, the cottage system, the colony system, the boarding-out system, and the Wisconsin system. Mr. Sanborn, a member of this committee, will point out the difficulty of transplanting institutions. Every public institution must be modified to meet changing local conditions and requirements in the various states. When I visited the colony in Gheel, Belgium, where nearly two thousand insane are taken care of by the peasants in a cluster of hamlets, it seemed to me that, however admirable it might be for the people who had developed the system, it could not possibly be transplanted to this country in any similar form.

I would like to make an observation, also, at this point, growing out of many visits to the insane in different countries; namely, that the question of race has not been sufficiently emphasized in the study of insanity. I am persuaded that in the mixed populations of this country a great deal of light of a scientific character is yet to be thrown upon this matter, and from it a great deal of practical wisdom is to be deduced. I think it will one day be evident that insanity manifests itself in a different manner in different races. It is already very evident that crime of various kinds has certain definite race affinities. It will yet be found that various forms of insanity are differentiated in a like manner.

It is clear from what has been said of the methods of treatment above that any of the systems is better than the old-fashioned huge asylum. Dr. Weir Mitchell, of Philadelphia, a short time since made an attack upon the superintendents of hospitals for the insane, practically charging them with ignorance, indolence, and inefficiency. I wish to say a word in defence of the superintendents. The superintendent is made mayor of a town of from one to two thousand inhabitants, for his institution amounts to this. He is also chief of police for the same village. Then he has general charge of the butcher shop, the bakery, the dry-goods store, the grocery store, the dairy; and he is usually expected besides to be an expert farm overseer. A man of genius would break down under any attempt to master the details under the control of the average superintendent, and the average superintendent is not a man of genius. After loading the poor man with the immense burden of the work above outlined, he is expected, over and above all this, to make a

study of the subject of insanity. This is simply brutal and unfeeling. It is beyond all possibility of human strength. The great hospital breaks down, not alone because it is expensive, but because it is scientifically impossible.

The state of Minnesota has recently entered upon a new method of caring for its chronic insane, which is somewhat different from that pursued elsewhere. Through a disagreement between the legislature and a commission to locate a fourth hospital for the insane, the entire plan of a fourth hospital was rejected, and the two rival towns each received a small asylum for chronic insane. It is believed that Minnesota will never build another large hospital for the insane. The economic features are different from those of Wisconsin, in that these asylums are wholly maintained and controlled by the state; but the practical work is substantially the same. What may be accomplished by making the lives of the chronic insane more beautiful and tolerable may be seen in such institutions; and Dr. Rowe in a recent article has shown the same thing for Islip, L.I.

The interests of the state and the future of society are to be largely influenced by the dispassionate and thorough discussion of the question before this Conference at this time. It seems evident that the treatment must be earlier, the early treatment must be more ample, the period of hope must be recognized, both in the interests of the acute insane and the chronic insane. The great hospital is a scientific anachronism.

IMPROVEMENTS IN MEDICAL CARE FOR THE INSANE.

BY B. D. EASTMAN, M.D., TOPEKA, KAN.

The foundation of successful medical treatment of any disease is pathology; that is, a knowledge of the morbid tissue changes which underlie the diseased process. There is a wide difference between the symptoms of a disease and the disease itself. For instance, among the prominent symptoms of pneumonia are fever, pain, and cough; but neither one nor all of these symptoms constitute the disease. The real disease is an inflammation of the lung. There are some diseased conditions in which we have thus far been unable to determine the real, underlying pathological changes; and we are forced, therefore, to name the disorder from some prominent symptom. Insanity, properly speaking, is not a disease. It is, in reality, a symptom of brain disease, or rather, I should say, the insanities are symptoms of brain diseases.

Mentality is a function of the outer layer of the brain, the gray matter called the cortex. When this portion of the brain is in a natural, healthy state, properly nourished by healthy, non-toxic blood, and untrammelled by morbid influences, excitation of its function results in normal mentality. This we call sanity. When the brain is diseased, either by change or degeneration in its structure, or because of irregular, inadequate, impoverished, or toxic blood supply, function is perverted; and such perversion, when prolonged and marked by certain characteristics, is called insanity.

Every one will recognize that it is absurd to speak of a cure for lameness or treatment for limping. It is at once apparent that the treatment will depend upon the cause of the limp, which cause may be a corn, a nail in the shoe, club-foot, sprained ankle, broken bone, hip disease, congenital defect, or any one of numerous other diseased conditions. The medical treatment of insanity, or, more properly, medical treatment of the insanities, should resolve itself into the treatment of the differing underlying pathological conditions. But just here we are met with the unfortunate fact that, owing to almost insuperable difficulties, but little of real value is known of the patho-

logical alterations which lead to morbid mental manifestations. We do know the changes, or at least the later changes, which take place in some of the incurable and chronic forms, as general paresis, alcoholic insanity, senile dementia, terminal dementia, epileptic and syphilitic insanity. But we know very little of the early textural changes which give rise to cases of mania, melancholia, and other acute insanities. Indeed, the attempt to determine what these changes are is, perhaps, alike the most difficult and the most important medical problem of the day.

Most praiseworthy efforts to solve this question, or at least to aid in solving it, have been inaugurated in some of our most important institutions for the insane by adding to the medical staff a thoroughly trained pathologist, who, relieved of details of administrative work, devotes his whole time to clinical and laboratory investigation. In New York an extensive, central, and thoroughly equipped pathological laboratory has been established, which is at the command of all the state institutions. It must not be expected that pathological research will speedily result in perfect knowledge on this subject. No one can appreciate the magnitude and the difficulties of this task unless he is to some extent, at least, a student and worker in this field. Nevertheless, the great advance which has within a few years been made in pathology leads to the hope that the early tissue changes of the insanities may yet be demonstrated.

It is very obvious, however, that, if good results are to be gained from these methods of investigation, stability and permanency must be insured, and political control eliminated. Political changes, political appointments, and political assessments will kill scientific work as surely as the typical Kansas hail-storm or drought destroys vegetation. So, too, meagre appropriations or parsimonious economy will inevitably prevent scientific expansion.

In no form of disease is the old motto, *Obsta principiis*, of more importance than in insanity. The beginnings of insanity antedate commitment to an asylum or consultation with an alienist. The prodromal or incubative stage, when proper treatment may be of the most avail, comes first under the observation of the family physician. Hence the greater attention now given in all our best medical colleges to the department of mental diseases, both by didactic and clinical instruction, promises earlier and better and more suc-

cessful medical treatment by the general practitioner and more prompt hospital treatment, if that be best. Not only has the family physician the opportunity of treating mental derangement in its earliest stages, but, if he be wise, he may stand like a sentry to prevent its approach. It has been well said: "The family physician, holding, as he does, the key to the family pedigree and ancestral history, and by reason of his opportunities of observation before mental action and mentation are evolved, is in a position to control inherited conditions. Reformatory influences must commence at home. Peculiarities and disordered states of the faculties can at this period be blotted out."

It would be inappropriate at this time to dwell upon therapeutical details, but a brief mention of some of the special agencies for improved medical treatment of the insane which are being urged and developed may properly be offered. In some instances they are founded upon the newer pathology, in others upon analogy and experiment, and always closely connected with that most potent influence denominated the moral treatment, as administered with the milk of human kindness by the skilled alienist.

Prominent among these agencies is the general movement for better hospital treatment of acute cases. Years ago the name "hospital" carried a forbidding impression; and, therefore, institutions for the insane were called asylums. Increasing familiarity with and confidence in hospitals of various kinds have developed a tendency to rename asylums for the insane, hospitals. To me there is very little in the name, but there is a great deal in the method. Every effort should be made for the better hospital treatment of acute cases at all institutions, because insanity is curable only in its early or acute stages. Better hospital treatment means better facilities for classification, enlargement of the medical staff, employment of trained nurses, more scientific study of individual cases, more attention to surgical possibilities. It is immaterial whether the institution is called an asylum or a hospital.

At some of the institutions for the insane comparatively small, detached hospital departments for acute cases have been erected, supplied with special applications for rest cure, Turkish bath, mechano-therapy, massage, etc. Careful attention is given in these hospital departments to examination of the excretions and to the use of remedies to eliminate the toxins which so often contribute to

the pathological condition. This sort of improved medical treatment will necessarily be more expensive than the penny-wise-and-pound-foolish policy so common among legislators, who too often gauge the success of asylum administration by its ability to lessen the per capita cost. True economy consists in restoring deranged inmates to productive citizens. The detention hospital, which was mentioned by the previous speaker, using that term as meaning a hospital for early treatment of acute cases and those on the borderland, should also be encouraged.

Another branch of this development is separate institutions for the treatment of epileptics, both sane and insane. And I may say, parenthetically, if there is any class of unfortunates which appeals to our sympathies more acutely than any other, it is the appreciative sane epileptic.

The therapeutist is well abreast of the pathologist, and has demonstrated the benefit of many new remedies. He can point to success in the antitoxic and organo-therapeutic treatment of insanity, and this, too, in spite of the odium which has deservedly fallen upon quackish pretensions.

The conscientious, conservative modern surgeon finds a limited work among the insane which may redound to his credit and to the benefit of the patients, but the neophyte must take heed lest he be one of those who rush in where angels fear to tread.

The public is coming to understand that insanity is, in its essence, a disease of a material character, to be invited or repelled by heredity, environment, occupation, habits,— in short, by every influence to which one may be subjected. Insanity will be lessened only as the laws of physical, mental, and moral hygiene are better understood and more implicitly obeyed.

And this sentiment leads to my final proposition: that the most brilliant success which the womb of the future may ultimately bring to psychiatry is comprised in a single word, "prevention."

STATE CARE *VERSUS* STATE CUSTODY.

BY FRANK B. SANBORN, CONCORD, MASS.

It seems to be settled at last, in most civilized countries, that the care of the insane, and especially their treatment with a view to recovery, shall be under the supervision of the state; that is, of the authority of the widest jurisdiction where the insane are. This does not imply that, in a federated republic like ours, or a federated empire like Germany, or an empire made up of two or three semi-independent kingdoms, like Austria, Great Britain, or Scandinavia, the national authority shall directly care for all the insane in the composite nation. Each separate state with us, each kingdom in Britain, each separate component (as Bavaria, Prussia, Baden, etc.) in Germany, is to exercise, and does, in fact, exercise, the general oversight of its insane, and does not intermeddle with those of the other main divisions of the composite nation. English lunatics are under the supervision of the English Lunacy Commissioners; Scotch insane, of the Scotch Commissioners; and so on. Imperial legislation can change the persons and modify the duties connected with the British and Irish insane, but administration remains in the hands of each kingdom; while in the United States both legislation and administration are confined to each special state. Convenience has been consulted in this, while the general principle that broad jurisdictions are needed for impartial treatment of this subject is in no respect sacrificed by thus limiting the extension of supervision.

State care, then, is an essential preliminary to all proper treatment of the insane; but it does not, therefore, follow that state custody must be forced in all places. On the contrary, our political system, like that of England, requires that local custody be continued wherever the good of the patient and the safety of society will permit it. I say "continued," because the custody of an insane person, in the first instance, is always local: his arrest or detention brings him before a local magistrate, and his case is decided by persons of the town, city, or county where he was living or was found when insanity was suspected. Any other course than this would lead to grave abuses, and, in fact, has done so, historically

speaking. And it was long ago demonstrated by Dr. Jarvis and other specialists that the advantages to the patients are always greater (other things being equal) when the hospital or asylum is within easy reach of the family from which a patient comes. A law requiring every person who breaks an arm or a leg to be carried not less than one hundred miles before setting the bone would be scouted as absurd, but it is scarcely less absurd (though for different reasons) to carry away the curable insane a day's journey from their home and friends. To bring the asylum near to the patient, rather than to remove it farther and farther off, is what experience shows to be desirable.

But, on the other hand, it has been found that local and county asylums for the insane are not always, perhaps not often, well cared for, that in some of them serious abuses have existed for a long time; and it is argued that only in great state asylums can proper treatment be maintained. It is this argument, no doubt, that led the people of Ohio to enact that after June 1, 1900, no county infirmary shall receive and maintain insane or epileptic persons, but all such must, presumably, be sent to great state asylums. Similar legislation took effect in the state of New York some ten years ago. This appears to me, and always has, an injustice, even an injury, to the insane.

But I shall be asked, What is the alternative? Manifestly, the local and county care in times past has not been everywhere what it should be. It seems at first like an easy and natural reform to send everybody to a state hospital, when insane. There they will have scientific treatment (when they can get it), frequent supervision, and the advantages that come to the heterogeneous mass of the insane from classification in wards according to the nature of the malady. True, but there are many other things to be considered; and this superficial view of the need overlooks more than one of them. An academic thirst for uniformity in matters affecting so irregular a thing as human nature, in civil society, is as sure to go wrong in practice, as did the old Greek tyrant, Procrustes, when he made all travellers sleep in beds of the same exact length, with immovable head-boards and foot-boards. If his fellow-being was too long, Procrustes chopped his legs off till he would fit: if too short, he stretched him out by machinery. Consequently, very few travellers chose the road leading by his palace of uniform state

care. They took to the woods rather than be chopped or drawn out to fit the system.

In our republic of forty-five states the conditions are so diverse that no one state can be a model to all the rest in this or any other matter. There is Ohio, as large as all Scotland; and yonder is Rhode Island, but little more than one-fortieth as large. What is easily feasible in the little state may be quite out of the question in the big one. A densely peopled state, like Massachusetts, and a state mainly rural, like Kansas, Vermont, or Wisconsin, find the problem of insanity presenting itself very differently. It would be singular if the best system in these states should be found to be alike in all particulars. So true is this that, when the laws have been made uniform in two such distinct communities, their administration is always found to differ widely. Customs, traditions, peculiarities of race, of religion, of social habit, interfere to prevent that which seems similar from actually resulting in similarity. What should be aimed at is a system that will fit into the framework designed for it, gradually modifying the existing conditions when those are wrong, but not abruptly aiming to sweep away fixed habits and substitute artificial for natural means.

Knowledge in respect to the best methods of dealing with all classes of the insane,— the curable and the incurable, the poor and the rich, the violent and the harmless, the epileptic and the paralytic, the victims of intemperance and the congenitally weak-minded, — knowledge of a matter so comprehensive and varied, has been very slowly acquired in the century now closing. Former estimates and conceptions of the number and classification of the insane have been set aside by the experience of years; yet the specialists, who should have agreed in the rejection of past errors, have been by no means unanimous, and many of them still cling to prejudices of the past, or frame hopes of the future as idle as were those current almost everywhere fifty years ago in regard to the easy curability of this complicated and most persistent malady. But what an accumulation of evidence has now made morally certain is: —

(1) That cases of insanity are everywhere increasing, and that less than a third of the persons attacked permanently recover; (2) that few causes of pauperism (meaning by that dependence on public relief) are in America so fruitful as persistent insanity; (3) that, therefore, this disease must be treated, not so much for

recovery — since a majority of all cases never recover — as for care, and for the economic minimum of pecuniary burden imposed on every community in fast accruing amount.

And it will be found, I think (an opinion based, not on conjecture, but on a study of the matter in many countries for seven-and-thirty years), that the system which best promotes recovery will also furnish the best practical care, and will diminish the proportionate cost of maintaining and curing the insane.

To begin with the least important of these objects (yet a very important one), the decrease of a pecuniary burden which is now painfully felt in all communities,— this cannot be expected where the locality responsible for the occurrence of insanity is for any reason excused from the direct monetary consequences of that responsibility. If, for example, the people of Delaware were allowed to send all their insane into the adjoining state of Pennsylvania to be cured or kept there without taxing Delaware at all, it would soon be seen that the cost of caring for Delaware's insane was rapidly increasing. Families would cease to bear their share in the burden. Cases that, properly dealt with, would soon have been withdrawn from public support, would become fixtures in the Pennsylvania asylums, or else would be irregularly sent back to their own state. The crowding of the asylums would interfere with classification and diminish recoveries; and Pennsylvania, feeling the injustice of being charged with a load not properly hers, would neglect the care of the intruders. Thus every one of the objects for which patients are committed would be partially defeated by this unjust distribution of the pecuniary burden.

I have supposed an extreme and improbable instance; but the exemption of any town, city, or county from direct monetary responsibility for the support of its insane would have the same effect, in a less degree, which has been imagined for Delaware. Hence, under any system, whether of state or local custody, the cost of the insane should be in part borne directly by the locality from which they come.

The most ingenious part of the Wisconsin method of state care, with the aid of county custody, is that provision by which the insane are supported in part by the county they live in, while the state, which directs and regulates the details, pays its own part, and the cost of providing buildings is in part reimbursed to the counties

that build by the money they receive from the state and the other counties. An observed result of this shrewd but kindly arrangement has been, in the nineteen years that I have seen it working, a full provision of shelter and care for all the insane of Wisconsin, while in every other state there is a lack of suitable buildings, and those which exist are usually overcrowded. Many defects can be excused in a system which secures this result.

It will be found, also, upon comparing hygienic results in Wisconsin with those in New York, for example, where the aid of county custody is practically given up, that recoveries are as common in the Western as in the Eastern state. This is because the existence of so many asylums for the chronic in Wisconsin permits a better classification of the recent and presumably curable cases than is customary or usually possible in great asylums, entitled hospitals. Moreover, the practical employment of more persons in active, outdoor industry, by reason of the large farms at the Wisconsin county asylums, conduces to virtual recovery or great improvement, where in New York such industry is less attainable.

Yet, although this novel system has worked so well that Pennsylvania has adopted it, and Minnesota has almost done so, I do not deny that it has defects, nor insist it should everywhere be followed. Other states, provided they hold to the first requisite of a good system,— that each tub shall stand on its own bottom, and every locality meet its own expenses in some degree,— may find their own institutions better fitted for them than the importation of a foreign method. As for the common criticism of the Wisconsin county asylums, that the medical care and physical comfort of the inmates are too much neglected, that is a matter easily remedied, as it has been, within my knowledge, in state establishments, and even well-endowed private asylums, where similar defects existed. Indeed, the worst evils I have personally known in the care of the 100,000 insane persons whom I have seen, in many parts of this country and of Europe, were in establishments under the control of resident physicians, who either abused or neglected their responsible trust. What conduces more than any one thing to the best care of the insane is a public interest in their condition, and the enlistment of personal regard and individual visitation in their treatment. This checks neglect, diminishes abuse, encourages medical effort, and gives the community needful knowledge.

It is vain to expect this general knowledge and interest from the whole community: to most persons the subject of insanity is repellent, and it is tacitly avoided. But to those who, from personal experiences or philanthropic or scientific concern, find the insane condition interesting, the removal of cases from their original locality to distant hospitals is a hindrance to better knowledge. Many physicians, for this reason, never acquire a thorough understanding even of the preliminary and most momentous stages of the malady,— a fact deeply impressed on me from the examination of 10,000 medical certificates which have come under my official inspection. Still less, of course, do the family and acquaintances of the insane person know of the progress of the disease, if their observation is restricted to infrequent visits to a great asylum where the patient is but one of a thousand; and even smaller is the chance that the local community will acquire really needful knowledge of insanity. It is this hurtful ignorance which the Family Care system of Belgium, Scotland, and now of Germany and France, effectually guards against; for it can be said without risk of denial, that the whole sane community of Gheel (Belgium) and of some Scotch parishes, know more of the practical treatment of insanity than do the ten thousand young physicians who yearly graduate from our medical schools. And, from familiarity of this sort and the openness of the treatment in families, actually less abuse of the patients occurs in Gheel than in the equally large close asylums.

Now the local authorities should not only be encouraged, but required, to learn what insanity is, and how to treat it in the earliest and the latest stages, which particularly concern them. Observation wards, now almost unknown in America, should exist wherever there are hospitals for the sick,— wards wherein the alleged insanity of persons can be tested, and great mistakes of administration, so frequently occurring, can be thus avoided. Such wards would be excellent training for nurses and young physicians in the diagnosis of mental disease.

The effort to provide for all the insane (of any but very small states) in large asylums seems to me as futile as the school-boy's hope to make the hind wheels of his wagon overtake the front wheels. Local asylums, good or bad,— too often bad,— always have existed, and always will, if we speak of the United States as a whole. They may be almshouses, they may be jails, they may be called hospitals

or infirmaries, or by any other name; but the most unceasing efforts cannot cause them to disappear, since they are natural consequences of our way of life, like local hospitals for the sick.

Look at New Jersey, a state of 1,500,000 people which in 1898 had 3,550 insane persons under care, and only 2,000 of them in the two state asylums. How long will it be before the three-sevenths in nine county asylums can be taken in with the four-sevenths into costly state buildings, which are kept more than filled by the new cases annually occurring? Or look at New Hampshire, where the enlargement of the one excellent state asylum is definitely given up, and the accumulation of chronic patients must, of necessity, go either into county asylums or families, since town almshouses are virtually abandoned. How can the county and municipal authorities in these states cease to hold close relations with the insane poor? It is out of the question.

Similar reflections occur in regard to Michigan, where the state asylums are overflowing, and county care must increase, whatever opinion the alienists and the State Board entertain on the subject. The increase of insanity there, as everywhere else, forces the conclusion upon me, at least, that exclusive state *custody* is as impossible in large states as state *care* is indispensable. If this be so, the thing to be done is to work zealously for the betterment of the local and county asylums, not for their temporary abandonment, only to be occupied again, as in Pennsylvania, when the inevitable is seen, and the merits of the Wisconsin methods made known. Even in New York a considerable reaction against the exclusive state custody was observed at the Niagara Convention of County Superintendents of the Poor in June, 1898, the speaker of the state assembly, Mr. F. S. Nixon, declaring earnestly against it. On the other hand, the Board of Charities of Minnesota, where exclusive state custody has prevailed for thirty-five years at least, last year recommended county custody for the incurable insane, under careful restrictions as to the buildings, administration, condition of patients, etc., as a measure not simply of economy, but of benefit to the chronic cases thus sent to county asylums, and to the acute and presumably curable cases left in the state hospitals. In Pennsylvania, already, by the law of May 25, 1897, establishing state care with county custody for the incurable, the Directors of the Poor, a long established state association, have passed resolu-

tions earnestly favoring the new system, of which, also, Dr. Wetherill, secretary of the Lunacy Commission of the state, at the last October meeting of this association, said, "The new law has been very favorably received in most of the counties and in the cities of Pennsylvania, and active preparation is being made in many counties to receive their insane."

In Colorado, as appears by the report of the State Board of Charities, January, 1899, the single state asylum at Pueblo, which Mr. Letchworth and I visited in 1892, has long been in an unsatisfactory condition. Indeed, I do not recall any county asylum ever visited by me where the methods were so faulty as in this peculiar example of state care. Partly this was due to a lack of administrative oversight; but a certain evil which we noted in 1892 must have been responsible for a part of the ill-condition censured six years later by the State Board. It was then the law that the superintendent of the asylum could not discharge any patient without the consent of the county authorities. As the state paid for the patient while in hospital, a discharge, unrecovered, would throw the burden of that man's cost on the county where he was arrested. For this reason in some cases, in others from fear of violence if the insane man came back to his county, or from mere neglect and delay on the part of the county officials, their consent was slowly given or wholly refused. Consequently, the asylum became clogged with incurable patients, and recent cases were excluded, because every bed was full. This, the reverse of what is usually charged against local authorities, that they are in a hurry to take their patients out of hospitals and put them in county asylums, seems to have given room for abuses worse than are found in local establishments.

What, then, do we conclude from this whole examination? This: first, that neither exclusive state custody nor county custody alone is desirable, but a sensible combination of the two, involving a division of the cost of support, so that neither the state nor the locality should pay the whole; second, that the details of such an arrangement may best be left to each state to fix, according to the needs and possibilities there, not according to the theory or the whim of men at a distance, ill informed of the local circumstances; third, that earnest efforts should be made to improve the treatment of the insane both in state and in local asylums,— particularly the latter, as most needing improvement,— and to bring as many of

the whole community as possible into a general acquaintance with the causes, the nature, and the best treatment of the insanity now so prevalent everywhere.

In connection with this general inquiry let me remind the Conference of a matter of great importance, too long overlooked in this nation,— the family care of the insane, already mentioned as practised in Belgium and in Scotland. Fourteen years ago I gave to this Conference the first experimental results of this system, which I introduced in Massachusetts in 1885; and I can now give you the result of fifteen years' experience.

Having been requested by Dr. J. A. Peeters, the earnest and sagacious director of the famous colony of Gheel in Belgium, to furnish him with an account of the long-established but much neglected system of family care for the insane in Massachusetts, it is proper to make this account accessible also in America. This country gives favorable opportunity for such family care, if not in the methods of Gheel (which perhaps could be literally adopted in our agricultural states), at least in the kindred form so long practised in Scotland, and now imitated in England and most of the Continental countries of Europe.

Long since recommended by that Massachusetts philanthropist, Dr. Howe, and favored by Griesinger, Bucknill, Blandford, and other eminent authorities in Europe, who agreed with Sir Arthur Mitchell and the Scotch Lunacy Commission that many of the insane can best be treated in families instead of immuring all in close asylums, the State of Massachusetts in 1885, under the special recommendation of a lady (Mrs. Leonard, of Springfield), gave authority to the State Lunacy Board to place in families "insane persons of the chronic and quiet class"; and, being then deputy lunacy commissioner, I was authorized to institute the system. This was done cautiously, every patient taken from the asylums (then containing about 3,800 insane, mostly incurables) being certified by the physician in charge of the asylum as suitable for family care, and being also carefully examined, and having his family relations determined by me. A year later, at the National Conference of Charities in St. Paul, I reported on the cases placed in families the first year, from August, 1885, to August, 1886, the number being but 46, of whom 32 then remained in families. Of the 14 patients who had been discharged, 5 had recovered or were self-supporting,

1 had died, and 8 had been returned to the asylums, either as unfit cases or because the families were found unsuitable. Two years later, in September, 1888, I again reported the condition of 180 patients who in three years had been intrusted to family care, the general result being much the same; that is, about one-sixth had been returned to the asylums, one-tenth had recovered or become self-supporting, and the rest (about two-thirds of the whole) remained well cared for in families, where some of them are now after nearly fifteen years.

Unfortunately there sprang up in 1888, mainly from reasons both personal and petty, an ignorant opposition in the Lunacy Board itself to the policy of family care. It first took effect practically in the forced removal of nearly 40 of the family-care cases to the state almshouse at Tewksbury, where they were secluded mainly in an upper room without employment, and so remained for months, There was no pretence that these were not well cared for in families; but it was alleged that they were not legally insane, although most of them had passed through the state hospitals as insane, and every one of them was manifestly void of reason. They were illegally sent to the almshouse; and one of the nurses who had taken some of the same class of patients into her family (Miss Cooke, of Sandwich) refused to allow her patients to go there. The result was that, of her 3 original patients who were placed with her nearly fourteen years ago (all incurable at the time, in the opinion of medical men), one has recovered, another virtually recovered, and all were self-supporting until pulmonary disease of long standing incapacitated the third, who died after residing with Miss Cooke for nearly ten years. As these cases were not specially selected, it is probable that the proportion of recovery and self-support (which is virtual recovery) would be found much the same in the class of women from which these were taken, that is, domestic servants, accustomed to labor diligently under careful oversight.

An agitation occasioned by this act of the State Lunacy Board, which public opinion wholly failed to support, prevented that board from abrogating the family-care system, as some of the members had proposed; but the system was administered by very cold friends until recently, and has been suffered to stagnate. Its good results could not be denied, although small pains were taken to extend its benefits to the rapidly increasing insane of Massachusetts. Where

in 1885 there were but 3,800 insane in asylums, there are now more than twice as many; yet the number sent to family care steadily decreased. Instead of 60 a year, as in the first three years, there have been sent since September, 1888, but 269 in all, or an average of but 24 a year and since 1895 of but 7 a year. The new State Board of Insanity, however, which replaced the inefficient Lunacy Board in 1898, promises to give more attention to the system of family care, which could easily be extended in a year or two so as to include 1,000 patients out of the nearly or quite 8,000 now available for selection.

Besides neglecting to extend the system, the displaced board has not kept up sufficient information about the patients sent into families to furnish accurate statistics of recovery. But such facts as can now be collected are shown in the following

TABLE OF MASSACHUSETTS FAMILY-CARE CASES.

AUGUST, 1885, TO APRIL, 1900.

Total cases (including persons sent more than once)	496
Total persons (duplications excluded)	449
Died in 15 years (not quite 4 a year)	48
Recovered or self-supporting or discharged to friends	65
Remaining in families	96
Eloped, and not found	2
Sent to a local asylum near friends	10
Sent to local almshouses	10
Sent to state almshouse	38
Thus accounted for, in all (persons)	269
Returned to hospitals or asylums whence taken (persons)	180
Thus accounting for all persons	449

Several things in this table are worthy of remark. The deaths are very few,— only about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the average number annually: whereas the death-rate in the hospitals and asylums in the same fifteen years has exceeded 8 per cent. of the average number. This is partly explained by the fact that several of the patients in families were returned to the hospitals in anticipation of death. But the chief reason seems to be the well-known fact that the death-rate in chronic cases (as most of these in family care were) is much less than in acute cases, besides which the care in selecting good lives, and the good care taken in the families, are plainly manifest.

Another noteworthy fact is the large number remaining where first placed, showing how well chosen were the families. And that 65 out of 449 should have been found self-supporting, recovered, or no longer needing any care but that of friends (14 per cent. of the whole), shows how important as a system of "after care" this placing the insane in families has been. It enabled good farmers and farmers' wives or good housekeepers in villages to learn exactly what the mental and industrial capacity of these patients was, and thus satisfied their friends that they could live comfortably at home, or could go into paid service with no serious risk of their relapsing into helpless insanity, which is so often the result of long residence in the overcrowded, close asylums of states which have not yet learned the lesson that Gheel has been teaching for centuries and Scotland for a whole generation.

That great reformer of prisons, Captain Maconochie, writing to our American reformer of public education, Horace Mann, more than half a century ago, said in regard to his rational method of dealing with convicts (since so largely adopted in America): "I feel assured that my plan would work especially well in your country. Your people are generally prudent, well informed, or at least intelligent; and, with the strong feeling of attachment to freedom in which they are reared, a system which appeals to the usual impulses of free society should operate favorably." This remark is equally true of the system of family care, which only needs to be followed up in good faith, and with a clear knowledge of what it can and cannot do, to succeed as remarkably in America as it has in Europe, in Massachusetts as in Belgium. It must not be left in the hands of moss-grown prejudice or unthinking routine,— traits too often fostered by the deadening influence of enormous masses of the insane, crowded together where neither individual care nor useful occupation can be given them,— but it must be dealt with by persons of open minds, ready to see what can be done with patients singly rather than in battalions and armies of doleful unreason. Had persons of this stamp pursued in Massachusetts the initiative made by Mrs. Leonard and her friends from 1885 to 1889, there would now be, in our state of 2,700,000 inhabitants (of whom not less than 10,000 manifest insanity in each year), not less than 1,500 insane persons living comfortably in families, and preparing in many cases to resume life as self-supporting men and women instead of drag-

ging out a monotonous life in great asylums. It is to be hoped that our new lunacy commissioners, free from the prejudice and superior to the ignorance of their predecessors, will take earnest measures in that hopeful policy which now is adopted in so many European communities, and has succeeded signally in Scotland and at Gheel.

VIII.

County and Municipal Charities.

CENTRALIZING TENDENCIES IN ADMINISTRATION.

BY HUGH F. FOX, CHAIRMAN.

It is, I believe, customary for each committee of this Conference to present a report at its general session. I find, in looking over the last five volumes of the Proceedings of the National Conference, that municipal charities have been discussed with remarkable thoroughness. A great deal of attention has also been given to the technical details connected with the administration of county and municipal institutions. The county care of the insane, almshouse problems, the vexed question of outdoor relief, and the management of county jails will all be adequately dealt with in the various meetings of this Conference. Under the circumstances, and inasmuch as it has been impossible to bring the members of my committee together, I venture to submit this paper, on my own responsibility, as a substitute for the usual committee report.

I want to direct attention to the development of statecraft during the last twenty years of this century, in its relation to the various departments of work in which the members of this Conference are engaged.

I have been going to school lately, to find out what the political economists, the historians, and the philosophers have to say in regard to the functions and the limitations of a representative government.

Herbert Spencer asks the direct question, "What is representative government good for?" He declares that "the original and essential office of a government is that of protecting its subjects against aggression." But in another essay he goes a step further, and in-

sists that, "if government has any duty at all, that duty must be to perform a service of some kind, to confer a benefit. But every possible benefit or service which can be rendered a man is comprehended under the general expression of assisting him to fulfil the law of his being. Whether you feed the hungry or cure the diseased or defend the weak or curb the vicious, you do but enable or constrain them to conform to the conditions of complete happiness more nearly than they would otherwise do."

The apparent conflict in his conclusions seems at first to be somewhat confusing; but I think they may fairly be taken as an indication of the evolution of Herbert Spencer's thought, and that his own convictions changed, or at least broadened, in the process.

De Tocqueville says that "local authority has been carried to lengths which no European nation could endure without great inconvenience, and which have even produced some disadvantageous consequences in America"; and in this connection he sagely remarks that "the authority which represents the state ought not, I think, to waive the right of inspecting the local administration, even when it does not interfere more actively." Curiously enough, his American editor was so disturbed by this theory that he calls attention to it in the following foot-note: "Such an agent as the author suggests would soon come to be considered a public informer, the most odious of all characters in the United States; and he would lose all efficiency and strength."

It is nearly half a century from De Tocqueville's "Democracy in America" to Bryce's "American Commonwealth." Bryce says that "modern civilization, in becoming more complex and refined, has become more exacting. It discerns more benefits which the organized power of government can secure, and grows more anxious to attain them." In the same chapter he discourses on the remarkable development of the regulative power of the state as follows: "And in the state legislature they possess bodies with which it is easy to try legislative experiments, since these bodies, though not of themselves disposed to innovation, are mainly composed of men unskilled in economics, inapt to foresee any but the nearest consequences of their measures, prone to gratify any whim of their constituents, and open to the pressure of any section whose self-interest or impatient philanthropy clamors for some departure from the general principles of legislation. For crotchet-mongers as well as for intriguers there is no

such paradise as the lobby of a state legislature. No responsible statesman is there to oppose them, no warning voice will be raised by a scientific economist."

The forms which legislative intervention takes he classifies roughly under the following heads: —

"Prohibition to individuals to do acts which are not, in the ordinary sense of the word, criminal (*e.g.*, to sell intoxicating liquors; to employ a laborer for more than so many hours a day).

"Directions to individuals to do things which it is not obviously wrong to omit (*e.g.*, to provide seats for shop-women; to publish the accounts of a railway company).

"Interference with the ordinary course of the law in order to protect individuals from the consequences of their own acts (*e.g.*, the annulment of contracts between employer and workmen, making the former not liable for accidental injuries to the latter; the exemption of homesteads, or of a certain amount of personal property, from the claims of creditors; the prohibition of more than a certain rate of interest on money).

"Directions to a public authority to undertake work which might be left to individual action and the operation of supply and demand (*e.g.*, the providing of schools and dispensaries; the establishment of state analysts; state oil inspectors; the collection and diffusion, at the public expense, of statistics).

"In every one of these kinds of legislative interference the Americans, or at least the Western states, seem to have gone farther than the English Parliament. The restrictions on the liquor traffic have been more sweeping; those upon the labor of women and children, and of persons employed by the state, not less so. Moral duties are more frequently enforced by legal penalties than in England. Railroads, insurance and banking companies, and other corporations are, in most states, strictly regulated."

Well may Bryce declare, in conclusion, that "the policy of state interference as a whole has not yet been adequately tested."

Two years later John Fiske wrote, "Government is perpetually undergoing modifications in adapting itself to new conditions." And, after discussing the various divisions of civil government in the United States, he says, "It is one signal merit of the peaceful and untrammelled way in which American institutions have grown up, the widest possible scope being allowed to individual and local prefer-

ences, that different states adopt different methods of attaining the great end at which all are aiming in common,— good government." The crux of the whole matter is given by Fiske in this sentence, "Questions of civil government are practical business questions."

The latest word on the matter has been spoken by Professor Woodrow Wilson, who, in discussing the extraordinary prerogative of the state legislature, declares that "space would fail in which to enumerate the particular items of this vast range of power. To detail its parts would be to catalogue all social and business relationships, to set forth all the foundations of law and order." Finally, Professor Wilson marks the development of representative government in a single sentence: "The modern idea is this: the state no longer absorbs the individual, it only serves him."

It seems to me that this whole train of reasoning leads naturally to the practical question of the efficiency of state regulation — if not state administration — of the care of all the dependent, defective, and deliquent classes. The application of the principle to charitable affairs is, of course, a matter of recent development in this country. Professor Amos Warner says: "We had an idea for some time that we were quarantined against poverty and distress by our glorious Constitution and Declaration of Independence. Not twenty-five years ago a writer in the New York *Nation*, when reviewing a work on French charities, half apologized for treating such a subject, but suggested in extenuation that, if we should ever have to organize a system of charities, French experience might be a useful guide."

I am aware that I am on debatable ground. The principle of local self-government is the shibboleth of democracy. It is sure to be raised whenever any attempt is made to regulate, or unify, or harmonize local administration of affairs by general legislation. For example, New Jersey's recent effort to establish a common standard of public school education was said to be "undemocratic." Henry George insists that "the functions of government should be restricted to the common welfare. It should be kept as close to the people as possible." Lecky, the historian, says that "in our own day no fact is more incontestable and conspicuous than the love of democracy for authoritative regulation." The quotation is taken from his recent work on "Democracy and Liberty"; and in the same chapter of it he says that "the expansion of the authority and the multiplication of the functions of the state, especially in the

field of social regulation, is an equally apparent accompaniment of modern democracy."

Professor Leo S. Rowe at the last annual meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, in treating of the possibilities and limitations of municipal control of public-service industries, was led by the train of his reasoning to the suggestion that, as these industries extend their field beyond the boundaries of municipalities, the state instead of the city may ultimately become the controlling power. Looking at the whole matter from the practical standpoint, the conclusions of Professor Amos Warner, who was an eminently practical and experienced student and administrator of charities, are particularly valuable. This is his dictum: "City and county politics seem to degrade public charities even more than other branches of the local administration. Charitable institutions are spoils of an insignificant character, thrown frequently to the less deserving of the henchmen of the successful political bosses. The managing boards of the hospital and almshouse are not content with appointing a superintendent, and leaving the responsibility of minor appointments to him, but make a complete list of employees and force the superintendent to accept them. . . . State institutions have been comparatively free from this blight."

"The economical way is to make the locality bear all the burden, because then those who pay the taxes administer the relief and are directly interested in keeping the amount as small as possible. This is the old English system. It has broken down in the case of the special classes of defectives — the insane, etc. — because there were not enough of each class in a given township or county to enable that political unit to provide for them properly. They were therefore gathered under state control, and at first the cost of supporting them was assessed upon the county or township from which they came. The difficulty of collecting these assessments, together with the fact that the local desire to save money too often resulted in the denial of relief needed, has led to the removal of an increasing number to the support of the state at purely state expense. The county is then anxious to foist as many of its dependents upon the state as possible, since it does not feel the added burden of state taxation.

"For the sake of securing better service we have sacrificed the possibility of economy inherent in local administration of relief work; and it does not seem likely that we will revert to the earlier

principle, because to do so must usually be at the cost of less adequate relief.

"There will come a time, however, when the enormous expense arising from the system of state-administered charities will be no longer bearable; and we shall have to seek methods of economy in the administration of these institutions."

I suppose it is safe to assert that, at least in the more populous counties, the state legislators and state officers are actually "closer to the people" than the county administrators and officials. They are certainly subjected to the search-light of the press to a greater degree, and are consequently more amenable to the inspiration or restraint of public sentiment. The circulation of the country papers is necessarily limited, and the publication of official notices and the minutes of the various local public boards is frequently their main source of revenue. Naturally, they cannot afford to quarrel with their bread-and-butter by constant criticism of the very officials upon whose favors they are so largely dependent. No system will, however, be successful so long as the spoils doctrine is in vogue in the appointment of the managing and subordinate employees who administer the work of public charities and correction. The matter was well put by a Topeka paper recently: —

"The conviction has been growing generally all over the country that the management of the great public charitable and penal institutions is a business by itself, which should be in the hands of trained experts, not of politicians, and that the existence and progressive management of them can only be protected by making them as little as possible subject to political changes in the state. Kansas is suffering, perhaps more than most states, by reason of alternate Populist and Republican boards of state charities, with the constant revolution in management, and turning out one set of employees to make room for another. There is a growing and a just sentiment that no chances should be taken of mixing politics with charitable business, and that some such law as is in existence in Iowa should be enacted in Kansas, taking the charitable and penal institutions entirely out of the category of political jobs to be distributed after every election."

Professor N. M. Butler, in his published addresses to the National Educational Association, says that "the spoils system is absolutely undemocratic and utterly unworthy of toleration by an intelligent

people. . . . Public sentiment must be first interested, then educated. . . . Efficient public service is a mark of civilization. To turn over the care of great public undertakings to the self-seeking camp-followers of some political potentate is barbaric."

The keystone of Professor Butler's educational creed is this: "In a democracy at least an education is a failure that does not relate itself to the duties and opportunities of citizenship. . . . To live together with one's fellows in a community involves fitness so to live. This fitness, in turn, implies discipline, instruction, training. That is education. The highest type of individual life is found in community life. Ethics passes into or includes politics, and the education of the individual is education for the state."

This is the basic principle which explains and justifies the whole matter of state interference, whether in the education of its citizens or the care of its dependants.

To return to the main question, is it not easier to apply a plan of civil service reform in connection with a centralized state system than with a loose system of independent local organizations, which supervise their own work and are amenable to no other oversight or control?

This has certainly been the experience in New York State. Moreover, the value of trained service and the necessity for properly classifying the inmates are more apparent in a large institution than in institutions which only care for a small number of each kind of cases.

Let me cite a few concrete examples of the judgment of experts in regard to state regulation. The Industrial Commission, in its recent report to Congress on prison labor, declares that "the state should have absolute control of the care, punishment, reformation, and employment of the prisoners, as well as disposition of the products of the industry." It concludes that, "in order to harmonize the antagonistic interests of the different states, it is essential that the industrial operations of all the penal, reformatory, and eleemosynary institutions in each should be under the supervision of a central office.

"The adoption of laws embracing the above principles has been retarded by the prevailing industrial, economic, social, and climatic conditions in many of the states. These conditions are so diversified, and the industrial, moral, and educational possibilities of the

prison population differ so widely in the several states, that the commission is of the opinion that it is impracticable for all of them to adopt a uniform law for the employment of prisoners that would be identical in all of its provisions. The necessity for uniform legislation is, however, fully realized. It is the only permanent remedy for the abuses that exist under the system now prevailing and for the abatement of competition with free labor."

This is merely carrying the argument to its logical conclusion; and the suggestion is capable of a wide extension, which is well worth serious consideration.

Mr. W. P. Letchworth, in his recent work on "The Care and Treatment of Epileptics," quotes a number of authoritative opinions as to the responsibility of the state in this matter. Most thoughtful physicians, he says, demand that the state should protect the community against the degenerate, as well as against the criminal, by making provisions for their isolation and maintenance.

"The tax-payer should not shrink from the cost of this separate maintenance; but, fortunately, it has been demonstrated that the epileptics, like the feeble-minded, under skilful leadership can earn a good deal for themselves, and gain thereby in health and independence."

Who ever heard of the epileptic or the feeble-minded being skilfully treated under county care?

The Lunacy Commission of the state of Maryland reports: "There can be no doubt of the fact that the state should assume the care and control of all its insane. The older countries and many of our own states have found by experience that this is the only proper way of dealing with this class of dependants. The actual cost under this system is less, because the percentage of recoveries is so much greater; and the unfortunate persons are vastly better cared for than under the county system."

The commission comments upon the county almshouses as follows: "Very few improvements are to be reported from the county almshouses. Most of these institutions are in bad repair. They are inadequately furnished, they are usually overcrowded, and in many instances the superintendents are totally lacking in the qualifications for their office. Consequently, the unfortunate patients do not have proper care and supervision. The superintendents of these institutions are poorly paid. They have, in most instances, a

large farm to supervise in addition to the care of patients, and, unfortunately, are changed with every change in the politics of the county."

However, it qualifies its recommendations, so far as they apply to the care of the demented and idiotic cases, as follows: "A very large proportion of the population of the almshouse consists of terminal dementia, idiocy, and imbecility. There is no reason why this class should not remain in the county institution, provided the almshouse is properly managed and the inmates suitably cared for. As a matter of fact, such cases are a distinct burden to the hospitals for the insane, and occupy room that is needed for cases of acute insanity or chronic cases that require careful supervision."

This is in line with suggestions which have recently been made in New Jersey.

The Ohio Board of State Charities says, in the last issue of its Bulletin: "It has been the fond hope of state and county officials, as well as of relatives and friends of insane persons in this state, that the law of 1898, requiring the state to extend its provisions for the insane so as to include all persons maintained in county infirmaries, might soon be enforced. At one period in the history of the care of the insane in this state it was a question of how cheaply the obligation might be borne. Now it is a question of how well they are cared for."

"Trained nurses in a ratio of one to four or six should be maintained."

I have not been able to make more than a cursory examination of the reports of the various state boards. But the primary object of this paper has been to open up a discussion of the question of the proper relation of the state to county and local public charities, etc., and to emphasize the fact that the solution of the problems involved is essentially a question of practical administration, which involves no conflict with any of the principles of democracy.

The following are the principal conclusions which I have gathered: —

First, that the state should regulate by legislation the disposition and care of all persons who are public charges, whether dependent, defective, or delinquent.

Second, that the state should supervise all institutions for the care of such persons and inspect them regularly.

Third, that the state should enact and enforce a civil service system of competitive examinations for the employees of all such institutions and for local overseers of the poor.

Fourth, that the plans for all such institutions should be approved by the state board of charities before adoption.

Fifth, that the state board of charities should be entirely non-political.

Sixth, that the state board of charities should inspect all private charitable societies, etc., annually, and that all such societies be required to obtain a charter subject to the sanction of the state board.

Seventh, that the state generally takes better and wiser care of its defectives and delinquents than do the counties and cities, especially (with regard to the defectives) the acute cases and those that will yield to skilful treatment.

Eighth, that the expense of maintenance should fall upon the community in which the person has a legal settlement, the state assuming only the cost of administration.

SOCIAL DEGENERATION IN TOWNS AND RURAL DISTRICTS.

BY F. W. BLACKMAR, UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS.

There is a common belief entertained by a large number of people that the country is free from the social evils that exist in the city, and that the latter is a place of great danger on account of social degeneration. This belief is emphasized by the oft-repeated statement that the city is kept in vigor and preserved from decay by the constant stream of humanity, that flows from the country to replenish it. There is also a feeling that the country, with its large space and abundance of free air and sunshine, is conducive to morality and social progress. In the main, these two conclusions are correct, only there is not the wide difference between the country and the city as regards social degeneration that is usually pictured. If the city suffers from the dangers of its population, the country suffers in

another way on account of its sparse population. Each has its own evils to combat, and each its own evidences of degeneration. Moreover, there is a marked difference in ease of determining these two phases of civilization; for the dense population of the city makes it easy to observe and count the evidences of wickedness there, while the sparse population of the country makes it difficult to estimate and recount the scattering elements of decay. While the country offers no such opportunity for such a high degree of civilization as does the city, it yields not such low degrees of misery and degeneration. While fresh air, sunshine, and plenty of room may modify the conditions of society in the country, there are constant causes of degeneration which apply to all societies alike, whether urban or rural.

But a careful examination of the population of small towns and rural districts will show many evils and many forms of social degeneration. The broad, bountiful fields, magnificent trees with the luxuriant foliage, the smiling landscape with the flood of sunshine, all lend a certain vigor of life; and yet in a measure they cover a multitude of evils. So far as my own observation goes, the apparent causes of degeneration in small towns and rural districts may be enumerated as follows: first, the lack of proper police force; second, bad sanitation; third, isolation; fourth, improper means of education; fifth, improper religious instruction; sixth, unwise philanthropy; seventh, bad punitive and judicial systems; and, finally, inducements that the country offers to vagabond life. These may seem small things to talk about, and, in comparison with the management of an insane asylum, a penitentiary, or an imbecile asylum, they are insignificant, yet, I aver, none the less important; for, if the tide of crime and degeneration is ever to be successfully stayed, it will be by searching out the apparently insignificant causes of degeneration and removing them.

Referring to the first, the lack of proper police force, I have reference to the small towns, where boys grow up with idle habits and a freedom of life entirely unsuppressed, on account, in a measure, of improper police protection. This defect not only leads in many instances to idle and vicious habits, but has a tendency from its very nature to develop a spirit of resistance to the laws and consequently a sort of imbecile rowdyism which leads to viciousness and finally to crime. Thus a large number of petty crimes and misdemeanors which appear on the police records are induced by the very loose-

ness of our social control. The bad boy of a country town or village has an unlimited opportunity to cultivate all forms of meanness and wickedness. Where boys are allowed to loaf in gangs about the street corner, or engage in shooting craps or playing cards in obscure corners of the town, using obscene language, making idle or indecent remarks about passers-by, committed to the cigarette habit and other bad habits, there is developed a tendency to evil which, once well started, can never be overcome.

Not that these crimes can be traced entirely to a lack of police force; for there are many other causes,— such, namely, as bad educational methods. There are a large number of girls and boys who are taking a regular course in the public schools with little interest, only doing what they are forced to do, and avoiding as much as possible the routine of school. Having no compulsory education, efforts of teachers and parents are futile in controlling this element; and their education ends by their getting a smattering of books and a large knowledge of experience in the arts of pure deviltry. Indeed, many boys, through the carelessness or lack of control of parents, absent themselves at an early age from the school-room, and, having no disposition to work, grow up in habits of idleness and shiftlessness. They are in a worse condition by far than the children who at an early age are kept from school by parents to work in shops. The remedy for this evil is to make industrial education a part of the school system, and to force all children who have a tendency to evil habits through a course of moral and industrial education or training. This would have a tendency to determine all such students to industry, and awaken in them new powers and efforts which instruction in books alone could never accomplish. The time has arrived when a diversity of education shall be insisted upon to fit the diversity of occupations in life as well as the natural adaptability of the children. They must therefore be classified at an early period of life, and the education best calculated to fit them for their life-work given them. We do not enter business in phalanxes, we do not take up the duties of citizenship in phalanxes, nor do we reform people in phalanxes. Then let us cease to give uniform education to children in phalanxes.

But, speaking of the tendency toward criminal life and vile habits arising from the lack of the right educational methods and proper police force, there is another subject directly connected with the first

recognition of criminal tendencies in youth. I have reference to the jail and the lockup. It is a remarkable thing in Kansas that in some of our counties and small towns our jails are entirely without inmates; but, where the town is sufficiently large to have cause for inmates, very imperfect provision is made for the proper care of such. Most inmates of jails are serving short sentences for the punishment of small crimes and misdemeanors, or are there awaiting trial at the next term of court, or, having been sentenced, are awaiting removal to the penitentiary, reformatory, or reform school. Here is an opportunity for criminals of different ages and degrees of crime to assemble together. In most of our jails there is little attention paid to the classification of criminals or the prevention of their association. Scarcely any systematic effort is made to educate, reform, or improve the inmates of our ordinary jails. The result is that the ordinary jail becomes the greatest breeder of crime of all modern institutions. Let me draw a picture illustrating the evil tendency of the modern jail. A boy of fourteen years of age, who through careless habits and evil companions has overstepped the boundary of the law, is overtaken in his crime, and is committed to jail. Without friends or advisers, he stands alone, the whole social fabric on one side, and he on the other. He is put into a cell with two men considerably older than himself, one of them in jail for the first time, who, through the pressure of circumstances, has been apprehended and committed to jail. He feels that he is there unjustly, that others were the real criminals, and he the victim. He is angry, outraged, and declares that he will be avenged; but he is on one side, and all society on the other, and he declares that he will be revenged on society as soon as he gets out. The one question with him is how he can accomplish his purpose. The third is a hardened criminal who has been in the penitentiary, committed several crimes, and now is apprehended and is awaiting trial. He knows a great deal, and, like most criminals, is even boastful, being ever ready to tell criminal number two how to take revenge on society; and number two becomes a ready scholar. It will be difficult to tell the effect of all this upon a boy who feels that number two is imprisoned unjustly. Number two teaches him how to become an enemy to society, and it all ends in a plan or a plot as soon as they are all out to accomplish some crime, in which the boy is an accomplice. The picture itself is not unreal; for it is repeated

over and over in various forms, to my knowledge, in various parts of the country.

The jail thus becomes an educator in crime. It should be improved by having for confinement, first, a respectable building instead of a dungeon, well ventilated, heated, and lighted; and a careful classification of prisoners should be made, solitary confinement being preferred to all other classifications. A system of labor should be established for part of the day; and a system of education, moral, religious, and intellectual, should be established for the other part of the day. In this way the tendency for evil influence of the jail would be greatly modified, if not absolutely changed. Boys are frequently committed to jail who ought to be in school. Ought not education to be provided for them in jail? In a report from seventeen jails in the state, over 5 per cent. of the inmates were under fifteen years of age, and 20 per cent. between fifteen and twenty years of age. The youngest inmate reported was eight years of age.

In large cities the bad judicial conditions are conducive to crime on account of the corrupt practices of police judges and justices. It sometimes happens that prisoners who have friends are dismissed, while others no more guilty than these are committed because they are friendless. Very little trouble of this kind is experienced in rural districts. The chief difficulty arises from carelessness or ignorance in the administration of justice. A show of injustice by courts, newspapers, and public opinion, has a great tendency to increase criminal intent.

There is another phase of degeneration arising out of various causes, especially in villages and towns,— the congregation of men and boys around street corners and grocery stores, and I might say on the farm, on Sunday and evenings after work is done. Events of the day are not noteworthy, and for the lack of good books there is comparatively little to talk about. The time is passed in the use of vile language and the telling of vile stories, whose chief evil is found in the excitement of improper thoughts and evil images. The effects of a polluted imagination in social and individual degeneration have never been estimated. The positive side has been greatly enforced by those who advocate proper ideals, proper thoughts, and noble conceptions of life. The mind of youth that runs to vile language, vile thoughts, and vile conceptions, soon loses its native power, and is on the road to degeneration of thought, if not imbe-

cility. But the effect upon the moral power is even greater; for it soon loses its moral standard, and, having no guide, knows not the difference between good and evil. Nor is it likely to end without developing an abnormal physical life, and probably leading to physical degeneration through evil habits and the failure to properly estimate the nobility of the body. A large number of criminals and degenerates in cities and towns received their first bad impulses from the evil associations of farm hands and common laborers, where vile stories, vile language, and indiscriminate lying were the common order of life. The dull monotony of toil, where laborers regale each other with a few vile stories told over a hundred times, with variations in which the English language is obscured with profane epithets, is a highway to imbecility and crime, whose evil influences can only be overcome by the sweet influences of a pure home life; and those lacking the latter go down.

Perhaps in this connection might be mentioned the isolation of country life, which fails to yield the strength of social culture. The relative increase of insanity in rural districts can be traced to a considerable extent to the isolated condition or the monotonous life of many people. The activity of people in the city, the whirl of bright machinery, the constant tax of the wits to keep out of the way and keep pushing on with the crowd, is alike destructive to vile stories, vile language, and insanity arising from monotony of life. No one can realize how fully the mind grows by its activity, and how one's nature expands by social contact, until he takes an individual without books, without knowledge, without social companionship, whose soul perishes and whose nature dries up, whose humanity gradually becomes extinct, through a degenerate process. If the city has too much activity with its tendency to crush the life out of individuals by grinding and pressing, the country in many instances allows people to perish, to degenerate, through stagnation caused by isolation. The isolated farm life has its own perils, as is shown in the frequency of insanity, crime, and suicide. Many of its victims under a greater variety of life would have been saved from a terrible fate. Better schools, better religious influences, and better social life are found in populations that are dense without overcrowding than in the isolation of sparsely settled districts.

One of the defects of modern town and rural districts, another specific cause of social degeneration, is the lack of sanitation. It is

generally supposed that a person would be essentially healthy in the country. Why, no one can tell, unless by habit or custom people have been sent to the country to overcome the heat or foul air of the city. The danger of the country town arises from improper sewerage and lack of care about garbage, and the use of poor water. Typhoid and malarial fevers are more prevalent in small towns and rural districts than in cities. The casting of garbage about the back door and the use of impure water from wells and cisterns all have a tendency to foster and develop diseased conditions which are not easily overcome. You will always know that a sewerage system in a small town has a good many opponents because, having always been without drainage, many people do not see the need of extra expense. Boards of health, wherever they exist, generally get together after the prevailing epidemic has done its worst. There is a lack of care in regard to health, so many diseases follow filth and dirt everywhere. It is a mystery how people in rural districts and in the outskirts of towns survive the foul sanitation that exists. In fact, many do not survive; and the death-rate is greatly increased on account of this slack system of sanitation. The effect is to cause weakness in individuals, breaking up of homes and families, destruction of property, and degeneration from hereditary taint. Small and crowded homes frequently place a low estimate of the character of women.

Referring to another phase of degeneration in rural districts and small towns, there are to be mentioned the evil effects of indiscriminate and improper marriage. I am not certain that this is any worse in the country than in the city, but there is a carelessness in rural districts in this respect. Unwholesome and improper alliances frequently lead to degeneration; and these are likely to occur in sparsely settled places, where there is not so much choice in matrimonial unions as in densely settled districts. Moreover, the social evil in cities, while excessively bad and degenerate in itself, covers up evils which exist in other forms where hasty and improper marriages prevail. The marriage relationship is a very delicate subject, and has generally been avoided on that account. It is generally left to the discretion of public sentiment or left to go its own course. As it is, outside of a few general laws, no strict supervision with a view to social improvement is had over matrimony. Nebraska at its last legislature passed a law forbidding the granting of

marriage licenses to individuals tainted with certain diseases. It is doubtful whether this law will be declared constitutional, but it is a step in the right line of improving matrimonial alliances. Great care should be taken to prevent marriages without visible means of support of both individuals and prospective support of a family. Now this means of support may not be in wealth: it may be in property or the means of acquiring property sufficient to live upon. Beyond this a system of registration of the individual and his antecedents in a town registry should be insisted upon. Matrimony should be forbidden between all abnormal creatures or those affected with serious chronic and hereditary diseases. Marriage licenses should be granted only to persons who have received instruction in physiology, anatomy, and hygiene, and made some special preparation for life. Evening schools should be opened in every city, where courses of lectures should be given on these subjects; and as far as possible they should be taken up as a part of the public school system. All of our efforts to reclaim humanity will have but little effect so long as we permit the spreading of a race of imbeciles and degenerates and the physical, moral, and intellectual weaklings that are brought into this world on account of carelessness, especially in rural districts.

The remedies for these and other evils of country life might be greatly lessened by the greater effective service of the church. There are many towns that suffer from religious destitution. The competition of the various denominations for a church in the town frequently leads to the building of more churches than can be supported. Take a town with eight hundred people and having six churches. Not over half the population of a town upon an average are church-goers. Here we have six struggling congregations, with six poorly paid preachers, everything poorly organized, every church organization bearing a burden of debt, and by their jealous competition bringing the whole Christian service into disrepute. What a change would there be, could all of the churches be united in one healthy organization, which could afford to employ a first-class pastor with a good salary, carry on a systematic religious work in a town with ease, the congregation being out of debt! The wonder is that the leading men of some of our churches complain that the membership of the church is falling off, when there is no means of healthy growth extant. While we are dependent upon the church for good service, care must be exercised, or it will be a case of misplaced

confidence. The church must arouse itself and take on new methods of work, or the agency for the salvation of society must pass over to other hands. While seeking for a genuine religious life of service, let us beware lest we fall short of the aim, and have religious destitution instead.

I come now to speak of the last great cause of degeneration as that of unwise philanthropy. The methods of helping the poor in most of our towns and country places are evil in the extreme. The lack of proper information in regard to helping people without doing an injury to society frequently leads to the increase of pauperism and eventually to social degeneration. There are comparatively few people in rural districts or towns that suffer from hunger. There are always plenty of food and plenty of care; and yet it is true that in every town we shall find certain families that have grown up as paupers, being helped from year to year by the church or by the city authorities or by benevolent individuals. Year after year these people grow up in weakness and helplessness, becoming paupers in spirit and degenerates in mind, living in poor habitations, dressed in rags, afflicted with sickness, children irregular at school, growing up in idleness and beggary, lacking in thrift, industry, and independence, every dollar of aid sending them down lower into degradation. Many people in towns persist in sending such families down to perdition, developing an inferior race of creatures. The only remedy is the union and co-operation of all charity workers, including the mayor, the township trustees, church people, and private charity workers. If these would work together in a system with careful methods of help, the evils of indiscriminate giving might be overcome in part.

Then there are those having no local habitations, called tramps, who by obtaining food and clothing are encouraged in their profession, and become more and more worthless each succeeding year. A new species of tramp has developed in the West on account of the peculiar causes or methods of settlement of this great country. The struggle for land and the failure of some to get it, the lack of returns on certain soils that would not yield an income, and the consequent necessity of moving have developed a habit of moving from place to place, seeking for better conditions, which through the reign of poverty become worse instead of better. This finally develops a race of people who are constantly on the move. They live in a covered

wagon; and with a broken-down team of horses they travel from town to town and from place to place, camping on the roadside, begging bread for the family and corn and fodder for the horses. These people are not large in number in proportion to the population, but there are a sufficient number of them to mark them as a distinct type. While they are not criminals, they do not hesitate to appropriate the things of which they have need. Investigation of a large number of these tramps showed that a large majority of the women were immoral. It is sometimes, though not always, difficult to distinguish between them and the honest, industrious family that leaves one section of the country for another. They represent the helpless drift of the great social mass that came out into this Western country to develop the territory and seek homes and lands for tillage, just as the ordinary tramp represents the drift of competitive labor.

In a consideration of this whole subject the reform of every phase of social degeneration that I have mentioned is only found by making improved social conditions. Reformatories, reform schools, and jails are not sufficient to prevent crime. Changes must be made in the actual conditions of life before the stream of crime will cease. If we wish to prevent incorrigibility, we must make the surroundings better. It is not intended here to ignore the hereditary influence in the development of incorrigibility, only to emphasize the fact that there is an evolution downward which makes degenerate humanity. While we try to prevent the increase of degenerate types through birth and immoral tendencies, our strongest work will be found in making better environment. The better social, moral, intellectual, legal, judicial, industrial life must of necessity prevail if we wish to check the tendency downward to weakness, pauperism, crime, and extinction. Better sanitation, better kinds of education, better care of unfortunates and criminals, better means of social improvement, better effects of religious life,— all these may prevent degeneration in the family, in the town, in the county, and in the state.

POOR-FARMS AND PAUPERISM IN KANSAS.

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The presentation of the subject assigned me in the brief time allotted necessitates the omission of very many important details and the discussion of general propositions only. The data for this article are based upon an investigation recently made by the Bureau of Labor and Industry, the results of which will appear in the Fifteenth Annual Report, which is now in press.

Dividing the subject into two general parts, we have, first, "County Asylums, or Poor-farms," and, second, "Outside Relief."

It is proper first, perhaps, to refer to the law governing that part of our public charities relating to county asylums, which is found in the Laws of 1862, under the title of "Relief and Support of the Poor," a part of which is as follows: —

It shall be lawful for the board of county commissioners in the several counties of the state, whenever they may deem it advisable, to purchase a tract of land in the name of their respective counties, and thereon to build, establish, and organize an asylum for the poor, and to employ some humane and responsible person or persons, resident in their respective counties, to take charge of the same upon such terms and under such restrictions as the board shall consider *most advantageous for the interests of the county*, who shall be called "superintendent of the county asylum."

The duties of such superintendent are defined as follows: —

It shall be the duty of such superintendent or superintendents to receive into his or their care and custody all persons who may become a county charge as paupers, and to take such measures for the employment and support of such pauper and to perform such other duties as the board of county commissioners shall from time to time establish, order, and direct, consistent with the laws of this state.

The provisions made by our law for the maintenance and care of poor children make it the duty of the overseers of the poor and of the superintendents of the county asylums to "bind out such poor children as fall under their care," and,

Whenever it shall be necessary and practicable, poor children of the asylums who cannot be bound out, or whom it may not be expedient to bind out as apprentices, shall be educated thereat, and, for the purpose of carrying the same into effect *with the least possible expense*, it shall be the duty of said superintendent to send them to the common school in the township in which the asylum is situated during the continuance of its session.

The above are the principal points of the laws of our state governing county asylums, prescribing who shall give and who receive and the methods of their administration. I wish to say here that it is, perhaps, desirable to avoid as much as possible statistical details in a paper of this nature; but, having no theories to present on this subject, I shall deal with these matters from the view-point of the statistician, leaving the student of these questions to draw his own conclusions.

Inquiring into existing conditions, the result and outgrowth of the statutes above referred to, we find that, of the 105 counties in the state, 80 counties conduct or operate county asylums, or "poor-farms," as they are usually designated in this state. In 77 counties the asylum farms are owned by the county, 52 of which are operated directly by the county; and in 25 counties they are leased to persons designated as superintendents, the inmates being maintained by contract. Three counties operate asylum farms by contract which are owned by private parties. The remaining 25 counties of the state neither own, conduct, nor operate asylum farms.

Of the 80 counties owning asylum farms, 76 report the total value of lands, buildings, live stock, and implements to be $558,454,— an average value of $7,348.

The grand total expenditures for 1899 of operating the 80 asylum farms, including the expense for labor, repairs and improvements, seed, live stock, tools, and implements, furniture and fixtures, food, fuel, salaries, county physician and medical attendance, and other miscellaneous expenditures in the maintenance of the 1,615 inmates who were maintained at some period of the year, is $135,978, or an average cost per asylum of $1,743 for the 78 reporting. It is also found that the total number of days' inmates were maintained by 67 counties, reporting 281,794 days at a total cost of $120,914, which makes the average cost per day per inmate of 42.9 cents per day.

With 75 counties reporting, the whole number of inmates main-

tained at some period during 1899 was 1,615,— an average of 21.5 for the counties reporting. This makes an average of 1.1 inmate for each 1,000 population of the state. The average number of inmates maintained during the whole year is 922.7,— an average of 13.1 per county,— which is 0.6 of one inmate for each 1,000 population of our state.

It is found that the maximum number of inmates maintained at any one time was, for the 72 counties reporting, 1,159, of which number 67.5 per cent. were males and 32.5 per cent. were females. In 61 counties the time in which such maximum number occurred is given as follows: for the first quarter of the year, 22 counties; second quarter, 7 counties; third quarter, 14 counties; and fourth quarter, 18 counties. This points out the fact that the maximum number occurs in the first and fourth quarters, being no doubt due to the winter season.

Of the 1,615 inmates reported, in 1,362 instances the cause of distress is given, being classified under the two general heads, "Within the family," with 1,302 inmates reported upon, and "Outside the family," with 60 inmates reported upon. Of the 1,302 causes arising "within the family," the following classifications are given: disregard of family ties, 65; intemperance, 76; lack of thrift, industry, or judgment, 192; physical or mental defects, 494; sickness, accident, or death, 190; other causes, 285. The causes arising "outside the family" are given as follows: lack of employment not due to inmate, 5; volunteer service in United States army, 8; degrading surroundings, 27; unwise philanthropy, 5; miscellaneous causes, 15.

Of the 1,615 inmates reported on, the nativity of 1,366 was obtained, the records being silent as to the remainder. Of this number there are 609 males and 344 females American-born, being a total of 953; and 334 males and 79 females are foreign-born, a total of 413. In other words, 69.6 per cent. of these inmates are American-born. Of the American-born, 26 counties report a total of 135 colored inmates.

A total revenue of $32,618 is received by 61 counties from the sale of farm products during the year. While this materially reduces the net expense to the county, we find there are 5 counties whose income from the sale of farm products not only meets all of the expense attendant thereto, but who have to their credit a net income of $2,655,— an average for the 5 farms of $531 for the year 1899.

Of the 77 asylum farms owned by the counties, in 52 instances the superintendents are paid an annual salary, the total amount of which is $28,110,— an average of $540.58. In the other 25 instances the superintendents secure their remuneration from products of the farm and contracts for maintenance of inmates. The average length of service of superintendent is three years and six months. The tenure of office of superintendent is said to be affected by political changes in the board of county commissioners in 20 instances, and in 52 instances it is reported as not so affected.

As to the system or methods of operating asylum farms, of the 77 counties owning such farms, 52 are operated directly by the county, and 25 are leased to superintendents and the inmates maintained by contract.

Considering first the asylums operated directly by the county, for purposes of comparison we find that their average value is $8,357; that all employ a superintendent, the average annual salary being $540.58, ranging from the minimum of $104 in Wichita County, where no inmates were maintained during 1899, to the maximum of $1,100 in Reno County, where an average of 13.5 inmates were maintained in 1899. The average annual expenditure for the operation of these asylums for 1899 was $1,989.08, the average number of inmates maintained being 666.7. Of the 52 counties, 47 report that 212,000 was the whole number of days' inmates that were maintained, at a total cost of $93,483, or an average of 44.4 cents per inmate per day, ranging from the minimum of 12.8 cents for Wyandotte County, with a population of about 65,500, maintaining an average of 50 inmates for the year, to the maximum of $2.04 for Rawlins County, with a population of 5,127 and with a total of 1 inmate during the year.

Considering, secondly, the asylums leased to superintendents and maintaining inmates by contract, we find that the average value of these 25 farms is $4,681, and that the average expense of operating 23 of these asylum farms was $1,318, there being 2 counties at no expense whatever, as no inmates were maintained. In 18 counties the whole number of days' inmates that were maintained was 68,023 at an expense of $23,624, or an average of 36.8 cents per day, ranging from the minimum of 21.3 cents in Bourbon County, with a population of 25,500 and maintaining an average of 35 inmates during the year, to the maximum of $3.08 per day for Sherman County, with a population of 3,400, with 2 inmates maintained,— a total of 150 days.

Under this system the inmates are maintained by contract let to the lowest responsible bidder. In 24 counties the contract price for maintaining adult paupers averages $1.90 per week, ranging from the minimum of $1 per week in Neosho County, which maintained an average of 18 paupers at the asylum farm during 1899, to the maximum average of $3 per week for Sherman and Hodgeman Counties, with an average of 2 inmates each. For 2 counties reporting the average price for the maintenance of pauper children is $1.22 per week. It should be noted here that in certain instances the cost for clothing, sewing, nursing, and medical attendance, is borne by the county in addition to the contract price. There are many instances, however, where the entire maintenance and care, including medical attendance, are covered by the contract price. It might be added that no two contracts under this system are alike, and that the true conditions can be determined only upon the examination and study of all the contracts, which cannot, of course, be given here. This brief presentation of these two systems has been deemed necessary, in order that a comparison may be made between the values, cost of maintenance, and other features pertaining to the peculiarities of these systems. It is found that the average value of the asylum farms operated directly by the county is $8,357, while the average value of farms leased to superintendents is $4,681. It is further found that the average number of inmates of farms directly operated is 13.8, and in leased farms the average is 19.3 inmates. This indicates that the governing factor in the direct supervision and control of asylum farms is determined by the value of the property rather than by the number of dependent inmates. It is further found that the average cost of maintenance per day per inmate of directly controlled farms is 44.4 cents as compared with 36.8 cents per day on farms leased to superintendents.

In closing the asylum farm feature of this paper, I cannot refrain from calling attention to the unfortunate fact that the care and custody of the property involved seem to take precedence over the care and custody, or the welfare, of the dependent inmates. While the omission of any uniform methods of management of our asylum farms may be due to the absence of any provisions in our law requiring the same, it would seem that the county commissioners might devise some uniform method of management based upon humane considerations in behalf of the inmates, prescribing,

at least, some simple rules or methods looking toward the improvement of the inmates, and tending to ultimately lessen, if not eliminating entirely, many of the evils of pauperism. That this is not true is evidenced by the examination of nearly a hundred copies of the contracts, secured in our investigation, existing between the county commissioners and superintendents of the poor-farms of Kansas, wherein commercialism overshadows humanitarianism to the extent that, in a five-page contract prescribing regulations regarding the care and custody of property and products, two lines are thought sufficient to provide for the welfare and interest of the inmates; and in many instances no reference whatever is made to the inmates. The following examples may be of interest, pointing out this fact: in one county the superintendent agrees to "care for all inmates"; in another county he agrees to "care for and oversee the poor-farm," the nearest reference to inmates, but he also kindly agrees to "take GOOD care of all the stock now on the farm." In another county, reference is made to the contract of the superintendent in the following language: "The county gives him $—— per '*head*' a week for boarding the paupers." In still another county the superintendent advises the world that he is in charge of an asylum for the poor by inscribing on his official county letter-head the following: —

—— ——, *Superintendent County Farm.*

BREEDER OF
POLAND CHINA HOGS, SHORTHORN CATTLE, AND
STANDARD-BRED POULTRY.

In this case the business not only is carried on with the sanction of the county officials, but is tolerated by the people of the county. These few instances are cited to demonstrate the degree to which commercialism enters into the operation and management of some of our asylum farms. I desire to say, however, that these few samples are not characteristic of any considerable majority of our counties or our people, but are pointed out to indicate the possibilities of the admixture of profit and gain with the disbursement of public charities in the absence of well-defined laws governing the care of our delinquent and dependent classes. While these contracts indicate the absence of any well-defined regulations for caring for the inmates of our poor asylums, it is but fair to say that there

is no evidence in the recent investigation made by the Bureau of Labor of any gross neglect or ill-treatment of the inmates cared for in our various county asylums. But, on the contrary, in the majority of cases there exists the kindliest consideration for the inmates, even in absence of law on the subject.

Outside Relief.

We come now to the presentation of the second part of this paper, the subject of "Outside Relief" and its administration in this state. The law governing this feature of the relief for the poor was also enacted in 1862, and has the virtue at least of being as "ancient" as any governmental function of the state. Its principal provisions are that

The mayor and council of incorporated cities and the township trustees of the several townships shall be the overseers of the poor within their respective townships and cities, and shall perform all the duties with reference to the poor of their respective townships that may be prescribed by law.

The law further provides that

Every county shall relieve and support all poor and indigent persons lawfully settled therein, *whenever they shall stand in need thereof;* and the board of county commissioners may raise money for the support and employment of the poor.

And it is further provided that

The overseers shall enter in the poor-book of their respective townships or cities all persons in their township or city who are unable to care for themselves, and who shall, *in their judgment*, be entitled to the benefit of the provisions of this act.

Non-resident poor are provided for as follows: —

Upon complaint of any overseer of the poor, any justice of the peace may issue his warrant directed to and to be executed by any constable or by any other person therein designated, to cause any poor person found in the township or city of such overseer likely to become a public charge and having no legal settlement therein to be sent, and charged at the expense of the county, to the place where such person belongs, if the same can be *conveniently done;* but, if he or she cannot be so removed, such person shall be relieved by said overseer whenever such relief is needed.

Also we find provisions for an accounting of this disbursement in the following clause: —

The overseers of the poor shall make a return to the county clerk of the sums of money required for the poor of their respective townships, . . . which sums shall be paid quarterly out of the county treasury upon the order of the board of county commissioners, in the same manner as other claims of the county are paid.

The law also directs that

The board of county commissioners of the several counties are hereby directed to settle with the overseers of the poor in the several townships of their respective counties at least once in every year, and oftener if they shall deem the same necessary.

Under the provisions of the above law it will be seen that no detailed information is required of the officers whose duty it is made to disburse our county charities. Concisely stated, it may be said that the principal defects of the law are that the officers whose duty it is to execute this great public trust are elected for short terms (one year), that the caring for the dependents within their charge is regarded as one of their *minor* duties, and that, primarily, they were not specially elected for the purpose of administering this particular public function. It will also be noted that there is an absence in the law of any requirement for an investigation into the character or surroundings of the applicant for relief, requiring only that the overseer pass his judgment upon the petition of the applicant, resulting in the usual order upon some merchant for the relief asked for. Such order eventually reaches the board of county commissioners and is ordered paid, and the amount entered upon the record in a lump sum without any data as to the cause of distress, age, sex, number in family, number of times relief has been granted the applicant, or any other data in which the public should have a right to be interested. The exception to this rule of procedure under the general law occurs in two counties only in this state, which by special legislation have been provided with a "commissioner of the poor," who not only personally investigates the condition of the applicant for relief, but makes all purchases that may be required for his assistance.

Considering now the financial feature of this outside relief, it is found that, of the 105 counties in this state, 100 counties paid out

for outside relief to persons other than inmates of the asylum farms during 1899 the sum of $209,152.67, or an average of $2,091.52. The remaining 5 counties not only report *no* outside relief paid out, but that they do not operate any asylum farms, not one cent being paid out for county charities during 1899. It may be of interest to know that the total population of these 5 counties is 8,509. As there are no data obtainable as to the number of persons or number of families relieved, or the frequency of the same applicants obtaining relief, further calculations or comparisons on the subject of outside relief are impossible.

Summing up the grand total expenditure for the relief of the poor by the 100 counties which made expenditures, we have: for the maintenance of the inmates of asylum farms, $135,978.40; for outside relief to persons other than inmates of asylum farms, $209,152.67,— which makes a grand total of $345,131.07 expended for relief of poor during 1899. The total population being 1,425,119, it is found that the expense per capita of maintaining our county charities for 1899 was 24.2 cents.

In conclusion, in justice to Kansas, we ask that it be borne in mind that the principal part of the law governing our county charities was enacted in 1862, with slight amendments ten years laters,— at a time when the total population, according to the census of 1860, was but 107,206, when the possibilities of our present greatness along other lines was little realized except by a sanguine few. We confess to being sadly behind the times with respect to the methods and management of our public charities through the county and township systems; but it is safe to say that the usual energy and enterprise characteristic of our people will not permit us to long remain in the rear of the procession.

The coming of this Conference marks the beginning of a new and better era, as there is not the slightest doubt but that the public conscience of Kansas will readily and intelligently respond to the seed sown here, and make such progress in the improvement of our methods and management of our state and county charities as becomes the great sunflower state which I have the honor to represent.

PUBLIC OR PRIVATE OUTDOOR RELIEF.

BY FREDERIC ALMY.

Institutional relief alone will never meet the needs of the poor. There must, of course, be outside relief also. It will not do to say: "Here is an almshouse, there are orphan asylums and hospitals and homes for the aged. The institution is there to save you from starving. If you have become even temporarily dependent, no matter why, and have saved nothing or not enough, you can break up your home and distribute your family in these institutions." No charity, however modern, will ever speak this word. There must be outside relief to stand between the better poor and the institutions. The question is whether it is ever safe to have this outside relief given from the public treasury.

One point more is obvious. There must not only be outside relief, but it must often take the form of out-and-out alms. Relief through work or through education will not cover all cases. There must often be cash or orders for food or fuel, sometimes temporarily, until a disability comes to an end, sometimes for many years, until the children of a widow are old enough to earn; and this aid should not be in skimped doles, but should be sufficient to prevent the need of begging to supplement it. I speak of this because the cry against alms has nowadays gone so far that I have actually heard the executive worker of a relief society in an intelligent city insist that such relief should never be given. Alms are the most lazy, vicious form of charity, and ingenuity and patience can nearly always find a better help; but repressive charity or helpful substitutes for charity will not always serve. "We cannot hope to cure the deadly moral disease of pauperism by simply withholding help" (Rev. James M. Pullman); and yet we must remember, too, that "no system should encourage improvidence by giving to the unthrifty at every crisis of their lives advantages for which the thrifty have toiled and economized. . . . The improvident and reckless should, of course, be relieved, adequately and humanely, but on conditions distinctly and avowedly unattractive." (London C. O. S.) We must relieve all, but not all alike.

Consider now this relief in alms, whether in cash or in orders for food and fuel, which must be given outside of institutions. Is there any reason why it should not be given from an adequate public treasury, letting the burden rest equally upon all tax-payers instead of upon the few willing givers who pay perennially, or upon the poverty-stricken treasuries of private relief societies, which may or may not be able to give prompt aid to sudden, starving poverty? Shall the outside poor rest upon the public treasury or upon precarious, desultory private charity? Private charity can be just as vicious and pauperizing, just as wasteful, just as corrupt and profligate, as public charity. If public almsgiving with no investigation or with no intelligence is bad, why not reform it instead of doing away with it? To acquiesce supinely in a debauching city government, and to attempt to organize a private agency to do the city's work, is a surrender of manhood. It is not "strenuous." If well-administered city relief is best, reform your civil service, and make such relief your goal.

Are we willing to say that public outdoor relief, even when intelligent and honest, as in Boston, is worse than the unorganized, spasmodic, insufficient private charity of most of our cities? No one would go so far; and yet there may be inherent, ineradicable defects in public alms which make them unsafe, no matter how guarded. In my own city of Buffalo, for instance, for many years all city aid has been checked by a double investigation, both public and private, and through a review of the need of each family by competent committees. Moreover, there is no general relief society of any strength to take the place of city aid. Shall we, under these conditions, do away with the city aid, and trust to a development of private charity?

At five national conferences of charities I have been an anxious seeker after light on this subject, full of doubts, and arriving very slowly at what seemed almost the unanimous opinion of the leaders of these meetings,— that it was best that public aid should confine itself to institutional relief, humanely and adequately bestowed, leaving all outside relief to private charity. At times it has seemed to me that the arguments I heard were cloudy. Take the stock examples of Brooklyn and Philadelphia. In 1877 city outdoor aid in Brooklyn amounting to $141,000 was cut off all at once; and in 1879, in Philadelphia, city aid to the amount of $75,000 was in the same

way suddenly done away with. In spite of this, there was little or no increased demand upon the private relief societies in either city, and an actual decrease in the number of the poor in institutions. What this proves, however, is only that *uninvestigated* outdoor aid, public or private, does more harm than good, and runs to intolerable excess. This is undisputed. With easy aid "you can have just as many paupers as you choose to pay for" (Fawcett).

The very first conclusion of the Josiah Quincy report to the Commonwealth of Massachusetts in 1821 is "that, of all modes of providing for the poor, the most wasteful, the most expensive, and most injurious to their morals and destructive to their industrious habits is that of supply in their own families." This is an arraignment of all outdoor relief, not of public outdoor relief only. It does not touch the question whether the limited amount of alms, which all agree must be given, should be given by the state or by individuals. City after city can be called in evidence on the evil of uninvestigated relief. The latest on the list are Syracuse and New Haven. Buffalo proved this in 1877, when its Charity Organization Society began its investigation of all city outdoor aid, and in three years reduced the amount from $112,000 to $29,000, or over 60 per cent. This was over twenty years ago, and our question now in Buffalo is whether, even so guarded, city outdoor aid is still bad and to be done away with. This question is not answered by citing the stories of Brooklyn and Philadelphia.

Again, the question is not whether there should be much or little outdoor aid. That question also is no longer open. What I would point out is that all the illustrations where lavish city aid kills thrift, saps independence, tempts character, and breeds pauperism, can be fully matched by just such lavishness and stupidity in the administration of private charities. Think of the free soup-houses and free lodging-houses which encourage beggary and vice under the cloak of the Christian church!

The evil effect of alms is pertinent to our present inquiry only in so far as it shows that less alms is needed to relieve poverty fitly than would commonly be believed, and, consequently, that the amount necessary would not be too heavy a burden in any community for private charity.

Nevertheless, the argument against all outdoor relief, public or private, cannot be too often stated, even if familiar phrases must

be again employed. The Conference meets constantly in new places and has new hearers, and some reiteration is allowable. In the first place, then, to refuse relief, as a rule, except in institutions is not inhumane. The institutions for the poor have been vastly improved, and are now adequate and comfortable. Moreover, it is wonderful how the refusal to give outside the institution develops grit, restores health, and brings relatives and friends from under cover. In the second place, it does not break up families. Figures from many cities show that the population of the institutions hardly increases at all when outside relief is stopped. Again, it is not cheaper for the tax-payers; for, although in the case of each single family it is cheaper to supplement its earnings with alms than to support it outright, the number who would refuse the almshouse, but will accept this private and pleasant relief, is so great that the total cost is always swelled. Mr. Bailward, of London (London *Charity Organization Review*, December, 1898), gives detailed figures, covering a series of twenty-six years, to show that wherever outdoor aid is liberal the relief in institutions becomes large, also. "The more outdoor relief you give now, the more indoor relief you will have to give by and by." To show what becomes of those who are refused out-relief,—to show that they do not just starve, as is sometimes claimed,—Mr. Bailward states that in Whitechapel, a district of London with a population of 73,594, outdoor relief was largely reduced in 1871, and, four years after, all the families whose aid had been cut off were visited. Out of 600 individuals, 11 had gone to the workhouse, 2 were dead, 76 had been lost track of (probably through change of address), and all the remaining 511 were found, and found to be not a whit worse off than when they were receiving alms. Mr. Bailward claims also that, when public alms were checked, the deposits in savings-banks and building societies increased by leaps and bounds, and that in Bradfield, for instance, after the restriction of outdoor relief the membership of mutual benefit societies increased nearly threefold. Briefly, it is alms *versus* thrift. It is hardly too much to say that people do not beg because they are poor, but that they are poor because they beg, and that as long as they beg they will stay poor. For centuries the stream of charity has been steadily flowing, and the flood of poverty has been growing; and we have not stopped to consider that it might be merely cause and effect. Investigation is no cure for this evil. It is not enough to investigate, and find that the

applicant is really poor. We must ask also whether he need be poor and whether alms keep him poor; whether his poverty is voluntary, and a thing which he can end if he will. Pauperism is far too contagious a disease to be tolerated with safety. When once contracted, it becomes rapidly virulent, and the epidemic spreads from room to room in a tenement and from house to house in a street. Miss Zilpha Smith sums all up when she says, "Our effort should be to use the agencies for voluntary relief to the end that all who can shall be helped into self-support, and that those who have done their best to prepare for emergencies or for old age shall have their inadequate resources supplemented, while not interfering with the lesson that want of foresight and bad habits both lead to the almshouse."

Returning now from this digression, which for very many here has been elementary, and admitting that it is unwise to give much relief of any kind, investigated or uninvestigated, we come back to the special question whether such outdoor relief as must be given should ever come from the public treasury.

As a matter of fact, half of our largest cities give no public alms. In some cases this is a deliberate reversal of a former policy as unwise. New York City abolished public out-relief in 1875, Brooklyn and Philadelphia in 1879, and Washington in 1898. Other cities are endeavoring to abolish it, and there seems to be no movement at all in the opposite direction. Of the 21 cities in this country having a population over 200,000, 10 give practically no public out-relief, and 2 more, Cincinnati and Jersey City, give very little. The 10 cities which give no public alms are about equally divided between the North and South, and in intelligence and public spirit compare favorably with their sister cities which give from the city treasury. The 10 which give no public alms, but supplement institutional relief with private charity, are, in order of size, New York, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, St. Louis, Baltimore, San Francisco, New Orleans, Washington, Kansas City, and Louisville.* Certainly, these cities do not neglect their poor. The poor do not "die in the streets" in New York and Brooklyn, as I hear it said they will do in Buffalo if city relief is abolished. Most of these cities have private

*St. Louis and New Orleans report their city out-relief as "trifling." Louisville gives "coal only." In Cincinnati the city out-relief is only $5,520 (1897), and in Jersey City $6,000.

Of the 21 largest cities in the United States, the 11 which do give public outdoor relief aid are, in order of the lavishness of aid, Milwaukee, Detroit, Boston, Buffalo, Minneapolis, Newark, Cleveland, Chicago, Pittsburg, Jersey City, and Cincinnati.

relief societies which give large sums, but all have not. If we broaden our inquiry to cover all cities of 100,000 or over, we find that Denver, Louisville, New Orleans, Cincinnati, and Jersey City, cities which give little or no outdoor alms, also give little in private relief. Jersey City, with a population of 200,000, spends only $6,000 in city alms and only $2,363 in out-relief by private societies. Cincinnati, with a population of 400,000, spends $5,520 in city alms and $10,463 in out-relief by private societies; these figures are surprising, but have been pronounced correct.

It is interesting locally to state the record of Topeka in respect to outdoor aid. The city last year spent for this purpose $7,815.11, or nearly 22 cents per capita for a population of 35,000. Of the 40 cities in this country with populations of over 100,000 there are only 4 which give more public out-relief per capita than Topeka. There are no private undenominational relief societies in Topeka, though there are free beds in two hospitals. As for indoor public relief, I have information only of the county poor-farm, which for the year ending April 1, 1900, cost $4,116. The outdoor relief is said to have been increased very much last year by an epidemic of "Cuban smallpox."

Considering now the large cities, of over 100,000 inhabitants, which give most public out-relief per capita, it is certainly not accident that the 8 which head the list are all Northern cities, and that 6 of the 8 — Syracuse, Rochester, Toledo, Milwaukee, Detroit, and Buffalo — are not only Northern cities, but lake cities. In these the winter closing of navigation on the lake and canal throws many out of employment, while the severe winters increase the expenses of the poor and at the same time stop all the outdoor work upon which common labor is so dependent.

In most of these cities where public relief is lavish there is little or no out-relief by private societies. This is so also in Topeka. In fact, it seems to be well established that liberal public out-relief checks the growth of the more sympathetic, more personal and helpful work of private charity. Moreover, a careful study of the returns from 40 cities shows that private relief is at least threefold more effective than public,— that in the cities which depend only upon private out-relief the amount per capita averages only one-third as much as in the cities which depend upon public alms. This is not surprising, for many resources are open to private charity which are hardly possible for a municipal official.

It is not strange that one dollar of private charity will do the work of three or more from the poor office. In the words of Lowell, "The gift without the giver is bare"; and private charity, if it deserves the name, involves devotion and personal service. That love and charity are, or should be, synonymous, is familiar to every student of language. Charity is a far higher thing than alms, as Saint Paul well knew. "Though I give all my goods to feed the poor," he says, "and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing." *Alms* only can come from the city poor office,— alms chastened, alms purged, alms immune to a large extent, in some cities, but still alms only, and not charity. I doubt whether the agent of any poor office goes from place to place looking for fit employment to help a discouraged man who says he cannot find any or to test a shirk who would run from work if he saw it. He does not overhaul the plumbing which has induced disease or arrange the transfer of a family to a more sanitary or a more moral environment. He does not persuade the landlord to wait for the rent or argue with the holder of a chattel mortgage. He does not entice the children to the settlements, where they will get aspirations instead of alms, and perhaps, also, a wholesome discontent with unnecessary squalor. He does not teach the mother how to earn or put a boy to a trade; in a word, change the conditions which caused the poverty. He can only relieve; and relief, we are all agreed, is the very lowest form of charity.

In Buffalo the Charity Organization Society has secured the cooperation of 130 churches and charitable societies, each willing to take the care of a few families from it instead of anxious to shift their burdens upon it. It has organized to some extent the loving personal service of private charity which bridges the gap between rich and poor and enters the home instead of being passed through the window of the poor office. It endeavors to find for every poor family a personal friend, and so to increase the contact between rich and poor. All this is almost impossible for the city poor office; but are we not once more aside from the question? No one advocates the substitution of city charity for private charity, but only that the absolutely necessary relief be given from the adequate public funds, and that this be supplemented by private personal service. Suppose we let private charity supplement well-administered public charity, but not displace it. The first objection to this lies in the fact that public charity in any city tends to check the development of private charity.

A study of our 40 largest cities shows that of the 10 which give the most liberal public out-relief there is not one that gives liberal private relief, and that 7 of these 10 have no private relief societies at all.

Buffalo is one of the 10 cities with lavish public alms. It has absolutely no general, undenominational society for private relief. It has, however, a charity organization society, the oldest in America, which was generously endowed in 1877; and this brings me to my final point. In cities where the public out-relief is either intelligently and conscientiously administered, as in Boston, or thoroughly checked and guarded, as in Buffalo, and where private charity also is to some extent intelligent and well organized, can the results be called satisfactory? These are the ideal conditions for the advocates of public out-relief. Do they produce that minimum of public alms which by common consent is desirable, not for the tax-payers, but for the good of the poor themselves?

It is fortunate for the purposes of argument that these two cities present this interesting question under opposite conditions, though in both cases vividly. In Boston there is a board of twelve overseers of the poor, unsalaried, appointed instead of elected, and composed of the most intelligent and public-spirited citizens in an intelligent and public-spirited community. We cannot expect public relief (or even private relief) to be better administered. This is conspicuously shown by the fact that in twenty years the number of families helped by the city has been more than halved, while the average amount given to each has almost doubled. The number of families has decreased from 6,627 to 3,076, and the average amount given has increased from $12.12 to $22.20. Adequate relief rather than doles is the aim of the Boston poor office. Add now the fact that in amount of private relief no city in the country can compare with Boston. Its private relief as compared with its population comes to the enormous rate of 24 cents per capita. In addition to this we all know that Boston is foremost in the development of the modern social substitutes for charity and in wise preventive work; and all this is nothing new, but a long existing condition. We should expect then, with these conditions, to see the evil necessity of public outdoor relief reduced to its minimum. On the contrary, it is excessive. The only one of our 20 largest cities which now gives a larger amount than Boston is Chicago; and the per capita rate is exceeded only by Detroit and Milwaukee.

I turn now to Buffalo, which, by the way, until one year ago exceeded even Boston both in its gross and in its per capita public out-relief. Since 1899, through the efforts of the Charity Organization Society, assisted by the Salvation Army, the settlements, and churches, it has been reduced from $118,000 to $51,000; and the end is not yet. In Buffalo the city alms are given by a single overseer of the poor, elected by popular vote, who is at present honest, but not over-intelligent; and this overseer of the poor is responsible to no one. He can give as he pleases. As for private relief, as has been said of Chicago, the trouble is sometimes not so much the overlapping of relief as to stretch it out enough to make it cover the city's nakedness. Under such circumstances shall we in Buffalo do away with this too generous city aid, and leave the poor we are not sure to what, or shall we rather guard and reform it? We have tried the latter. As I have said, before 1877 there was no investigation; and the foundation of the Charity Organization Society reduced the aid in three years from $112,000 to $29,000,— over 60 per cent. Since then, for over twenty years, every case of city aid has been investigated and registered by as capable agents as any charity organization society in America can boast of. For many years the city also has had competent investigators who duplicated this work; and volunteer district committees of the Charity Organization Society review carefully all this city aid, and approve or disapprove, though their disapproval is not binding upon the overseer of the poor.

I come now to a fact which I have not advertised in Buffalo, and which I hesitate to state even here for fear of laughter. Although our city out-relief a year ago had reached the prodigious sum of $118,585, four-fifths of all this aid had been duly reviewed and approved by our own intelligent district committees.

As I read the lesson of these two cities, the public treasury cannot safely take the place of private relief. However guarded, it tends to excess. The city treasury seems to the imagination of the poor big and inexhaustible, and they turn to it in every domestic emergency with a sense of right. They cast thrift to the winds, and throw themselves fairly upon our necks. I have been over case after case of the Buffalo relief. The families are poor, desperately poor, with no immediate resources; and during the business depression and hard times which have accompanied my short association with the Buffalo

society it seemed impossible to say they could find work if they would. Over and over we have voted in favor of "temporary relief," though more severity would probably have been wholesome. The overseer of the poor of Providence speaks well in his report for 1898, when he says: "I am satisfied from personal observation and investigation that many apply to this department for relief with the feeling that the city is in obligation to assist, whether they are in actual need or not. By this I do not wish to be understood to mean that the majority of applicants are not in want when they apply. What I do wish to convey is that many apply for city aid, feeling the city must do something for them; and for that reason little effort is made on their part to obtain employment. It is a very easy matter for one who is inclined to shirk the responsibility of providing for his family to say he cannot secure employment, thereby putting the responsibility of finding something for him to do upon the department."

No doubt we have sinned in Buffalo, and have been lax in our judgments; but, if so, it is a deep, it is an inexpressible consolation to us to look upon Boston, which is in the same plight with its easier conditions. In Boston, with its private aid societies, it seems to me that the city aid should be stopped short without a tremor. If to give much out-relief of any kind is bad, however, does the experience of Boston and Buffalo leave any escape from the conclusion that public out-relief is especially dangerous, and this wholly apart from its ordinary effect in checking the growth of private charity? The poor do not rest their whole weight so confidently upon the less conspicuous resources of private charity, and they do not have the same feeling of title to it. As Thomas Mackay well says, the real argument against public outdoor relief does not rely upon any greater discrimination used by private relief societies, but upon the greater moderation of the poor in making claim upon a private fund.

It may be urged that this argument, if carried to its logical limit, would apply equally to public institutional charity. That institutional charity also runs easily to excess is flagrantly shown by the New York City orphan asylums; but there is an obvious distinction to be drawn. Institutional relief is much less open to imposition. Men do not go to hospitals unless they are sick, or to homes for the aged unless they are old, or to the almshouse unless they are destitute; but many are perfectly willing to go to the poor office for whatever they can get. It is surprising to see what faculties of self-help,

almost atrophied by disuse, are developed when the almshouse becomes a possibility. The latent powers of the poor have been compared to those of boys who swim when thrown into the water, even when they were perfectly sure they could not, because they suppose they are left to their own endeavor. Private charity must stand in the background, ready to help if need be, but advertising its relief no more than is absolutely necessary. This for public charity is almost impossible. I agree with Mr. Washburn, the overseer of the poor for Jefferson County, New York, who stated it as the result of his fourteen years' experience that public outdoor aid manufactures more paupers than even liquor, and that in cities where public outdoor relief is given there is more unrelieved poverty and more need of private charity than where there is none.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE OUTDOOR RELIEF, PER CAPITA.*

The following table shows the 40 largest cities of the United States arranged, first, in order of least public relief, and, second, in order of least private relief. For purposes of comparison they are divided into 4 classes, of 10 each. The figures at the left of the names of the cities show their rank according to *population*. The figures in parentheses show in what class each city will be found in the opposite column. For instance, under public relief, *New York* (4) means that, although New York gives no public out-door relief, under private relief it will be found in group 4 (liberal).

PUBLIC — 1897. 1 (*none*).			PRIVATE — 1897. 1 (*none*).		
1	New York (abolished 1875),	(4) $0.00	35	Memphis	(1) No reply
3	Philadelphia (" 1879)	(3) .00	19	Minneapolis	(3) $0.000
4	Brooklyn (" 1879),	(3) .00	28	Toledo	(4) .000
6	Baltimore	(4) .00	29	Syracuse	(4) .000
11	San Francisco	(4) .00	30	Columbus	(4) .000
15	Washington (abolished 1898)	(3) .00	34	Scranton	(4) .000
21	Kansas City	(4) .00	37	Fall River	(4) .000
24	Denver	(2) .00	39	Richmond	(2) .000
32	Atlanta	(3) .00	12	Detroit ($625)	(4) .002
35	Memphis	(?) .00	40	Grand Rapids ($575),	(4) .005

* From the *Charities Review* for April, 1899.

	PUBLIC — 1897.			PRIVATE — 1897.		
	2 (*little*).			2 (*little*).		
18	Louisville (coal only)	(2)	$0.01	10 Cleveland ($2,546)	(3)	$0.007
5	St. Louis (trifling)	(1)	.01	13 New Orleans ($2,500)	(2)	.008
13	New Orleans (trifling)	(2)	.01	18 Louisville ($2,479)	(2)	.012
8	Cincinnati ($5,520)	(2)	.01	20 Jersey City ($2,363)	(2)	.012
20	Jersey City ($6,000)	(2)	.03	36 Worcester ($1,229)	(3)	.012
22	Indianapolis ($7,185)	(3)	.04	31 Allegheny ($4,150)	(3	.020
14	Pittsburg ($15,323)	(4)	.05	25 St. Paul ($3,850)	(2)	.024
26	Providence ($7,927)	(4)	.05	8 Cincinnati ($10,463)	(2)	.026
39	Richmond ($4,595)	(1)	.05	24 Denver ($4,744)	(1)	.028
25	St. Paul ($9,695)	(2)	.06	9 Buffalo ($12,950)	(4)	.029
	3 (*considerable*).			3 (*considerable*).		
36	Worcester ($5,807)	(2)	.06	16 Milwaukee ($7,900)	(4)	.029
31	Allegheny ($9,066)	(2)	.07	3 Philadelphia ($38,121)	(1)	.030
38	Albany ($7,430)	(3)	.07	38 Albany ($3,100)	(3)	.031
2	Chicago ($136,200)	(4)	.08	33 New Haven ($3,710)	(3)	.033
10	Cleveland ($32,128)	(2)	.08	32 Atlanta ($4,000)	(1)	.034
17	Newark ($20,792)	(4)	.08	15 Washington ($10,000)	(1)	.036
33	New Haven ($9,069)	(3)	.09	27 Omaha ($6,191)	(3)	.041
19	Minneapolis ($23,528)	(1)	.11	23 Rochester ($7,402)	(4)	.042
7	Boston ($69,687)	(4)	.13	4 Brooklyn ($51,655)	(1)	.044
27	Omaha ($19,514)	(3)	.13	22 Indianapolis ($8,051)	(2)	.045
	4 (*liberal*).			4 (*liberal*).		
34	Scranton ($14,850)	(1)	.13	2 Chicago ($100,000)	(3)	.055
40	Grand Rapids ($13,640)	(1)	.14	26 Providence ($9,240)	(2)	.060
12	Detroit, 1898 ($50,545)	(1)	.16	17 Newark ($14,205)	(3)	.061
30	Columbus ($21,886)	(1)	.17	6 Baltimore ($40,272)	(1)	.064
16	Milwaukee, 1898 ($50,227),	(3)	.18	14 Pittsburg ($19,077)	(2)	.065
28	Toledo ($31,291)	(1)	.23	21 Kansas City ($13,404)	(1)	.067
37	Fall River ($24,828)	(1)	.24	5 St. Louis ($69,478)	(2)	.107
9	Buffalo ($109,627)*	(2)	.28	11 San Francisco ($49,000)	(1)	.140
23	Rochester ($49,023)	(3)	.28	1 New York ($328,666)	(1)	.164
29	Syracuse ($45,092)	(1)	.34	7 Boston ($130,534)	(3)	.240

* In 1900 appropriation reduced to $51,000, or $0.13 per capita, by effort of Charity Organization Society, Salvation Army, etc.

THE ALMSHOUSE.*

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The almshouse may seem to many a subject so unattractive as properly to be dismissed in a short descriptive paragraph. There are those, however, upon whom even this dull topic exerts a certain fascination; and to these the Conference charitably lends an ear, impelled by a sense of duty or stirred by a vain hope that the hidden charm of this most uninspiring of our institutions may be made manifest.

The chief reason why the almshouse fails to interest us is that we do not understand it; and we do not understand it because we regard it too much by itself, and out of its relation to other branches of public charity, and also too much as it is, and out of its relation to its past and its future. One who knows only the almshouse does not know the almshouse very well; and one who knows only the almshouse of one period hardly knows the almshouse at all.

But one who truly knows one almshouse knows every almshouse. Wherever found, it is practically the same institution. Apparent differences may be great; real differences are slight. It is an institution which is undergoing a process of evolution. Different almshouses exemplify different stages of this evolution.

In some cases, certain stages are shortened or omitted altogether, in others so unduly extended that the despairing onlookers think there will never be any onward movement. Possibly there may not be, unless the onlookers get down and push. Science recognizes such a thing as arrested development, not to mention reversion to a more primitive type.

To explain the circumstances which determine this almshouse individuality and which justify this view of the oneness of the institution would lead us too far afield. For the purposes of a short paper it is perhaps sufficient to accept the view that the almshouse is every-

*Throughout this paper the word "almshouse" is used, not according to its broad, legal definition, as any charitable institution, whether public or private, where the poor are maintained, but according to the generally accepted American usage of the word, synonymous with poorhouse, a public institution maintained by the county, the city, or the town for public dependants.

where one and the same, under whatever name and at whatever age we find it. If this is true, then any individual almshouse may be helped by the experience of any other; and a principle which is applicable to one is applicable to all. Starting with this theory of the almshouse, we can perhaps make some progress towards answering the various questions that arise regarding the proper organization of such an institution.

The fundamental question on which any discussion of our subject must be based is, what is the function of the almshouse? What is its place in the general scheme of public indoor relief? Or, in a more simple and concrete form, who belongs in the almshouse? In its first stage of development the almshouse is a sort of public dumping-ground for all classes of dependants and defectives and for some classes of delinquents. Herded together are to be found children, idiots, epileptics, the insane, the feeble-minded, the deaf and dumb, the blind, the sick, tramps and vicious persons, and the respectable aged poor. Gradually, certain of these classes are wholly or partly removed and provided for elsewhere. According to what principle is this done? How is it decided which of all these various persons do not properly belong in the almshouse and which do belong there?

There are many things which determine what sort of work an almshouse can do. Chief among these is the character of the official at its head. So long as the local officers having charge of the administration of public charity are elected for short terms by popular vote, and are chosen for qualities which have little to do with the requirements of the position they are to occupy, it cannot be expected that their work will be done according to scientific principles. Whatever heights of excellence any individual almshouse may attain under the temporary administration of any individual superintendent, the ordinary and normal management of the institution must be regarded as indifferent. Consequently, only such work should be required of the almshouse as can reasonably be expected of it under the administration of any ordinary citizen, with common sense and good intentions probably, but without professional training or experience. Classes of dependents requiring special scientific treatment of any sort are not, therefore, proper almshouse inmates.

Another thing which determines the work of the almshouse is its size. Except when connected with a large city, it is ordinarily a

small institution, containing on an average probably less than a hundred inmates. Any classes of dependants, therefore, who cannot properly and economically be cared for in small numbers, are not suitable almshouse inmates.

Still another and a more widely recognized disability of the almshouse comes from the fact that it is an open institution, where confinement is supposed to be voluntary, and so cannot provide for persons who are properly prisoners and should be kept under lock and key.

Our principle of exclusion, then, covers three classes of persons — those requiring special scientific treatment, those who cannot properly and economically be cared for in small numbers, and those who must be confined against their will.

Taking up the last first, it is obvious that the almshouse is no place for prisoners. The most elementary classification of the dependent classes distinguishes between those who are merely dependent and those who are also delinquent. The practice of accommodating tramps and of actually receiving by commitment of the courts disorderly persons, which is still prevalent in most states, though in many there is other provision for such cases, cannot be upheld by any argument from either theory or experience. In states where there are no intermediate institutions between the jail and the almshouse, where the workhouse and the reformatory have not yet been established, cases frequently arise in which less harm seems to be done by committing the offender to the almshouse than by sending him to jail; but the incomplete equipment of such states for dealing with delinquents is no argument for putting the almshouse to penal uses. More advanced states provide for the commitment of tramps, vagrants, and disorderly persons to penitentiaries, workhouses, or reformatories.

After delinquents have been excluded, there remains a miscellaneous population from which certain classes stand out as in need of special treatment of a more or less scientific nature: education for all children, including those who are feeble-minded, blind, deaf, and dumb; scientific care and, so far as possible, curative treatment for the insane, the epileptic, and the sick; custodial care for feeble-minded adults and idiots. The almshouse school cannot properly educate the normal child, much less the defective. The almshouse doctor, commonly a general practitioner in country districts, is not

fitted to treat insanity, epilepsy, and other diseases which are now regarded as the province of trained specialists; and the open-door system of almshouse management cannot insure proper restraint of the feeble-minded and the idiotic.

In those states in which public charity has reached an advanced stage of development, all these classes of dependants are cared for in separate institutions especially suited to their different needs. It is impossible within the limits of a short paper to enter into the different methods of caring for all of these various classes of dependants, but a few words may be said about each.

The dangers of subjecting children to the influences of almshouse life were early realized. The imitative instinct is so strongly developed in all children that the character of their environment during their impressionable early years is of the utmost importance, and it is generally felt that the surest way to raise a generation of paupers is to rear children in almshouses. Most states in the Union make it illegal to receive and retain in almshouses children who are past the age of babyhood. But there are still many states, especially in the South, where this abuse has not been corrected by law. Some states, especially in the West, maintain public institutions for children, in which they are kept temporarily, and from which they are either returned to their relatives or placed-out in family homes by adoption, indenture, or some other form of agreement. Other states leave the care of destitute children largely to private charitable societies, with or without assistance from the public treasury.

While it is possible for the state to prohibit the admission and retention of normal children in almshouses, even without making other provision for them, but relying upon private charity to take the initiative in providing for them, defective children can hardly be excluded with the same assurance that private aid will be forthcoming. Consequently, most states have early established educational institutions for the blind and the deaf and dumb of teachable age, while leaving the almshouses open to them in addition. Few such children are to be found in almshouses, however, unless they have more than one defect, and, in addition to being blind or deaf, are feeble-minded, epileptic, or crippled. Provision for the education of the mentally defective has been made more slowly, and the majority of the states are still unprovided with public institutions for feeble-minded children.

Proper provision for adult defectives has made little more than a beginning in this country. All blind and deaf and dumb persons cannot be made self-dependent; and, as industrial competition grows keener, the difficulties will increase. It is a hardship for people of these classes who have undergone a course of training in a state institution to return to the almshouse. There are a considerable number of private institutions for the adult blind, and it is to be hoped that private effort will provide more completely for both blind and deaf-mute adults.

The condition of the idiotic and the adult feeble-minded is even more unfortunate. The danger of allowing feeble-minded women to be at large, or even to live under the loose restraint of an almshouse, seems to be little realized as yet. New York and New Jersey, appreciating that the best way to cut off the supply of defective children, is to prevent defective women from becoming mothers, established some fifteen years ago institutions for the custodial care of such women. It is a hardship to the respectable inmates of an almshouse to be associated in the same institution with idiotic and feeble-minded persons. The almshouse is not equipped to care for and restrain such inmates, and there is consequent suffering on the part of the defectives themselves. The safest, most humane, and most economical way of caring for idiots is to take them from almshouses, and segregate them in large numbers in state institutions. New York was the first to establish such an institution for idiots, but as yet there are three times as many eligible cases outside as inside. In most states they are either left in the almshouses or allowed to remain in the institutions for feeble-minded youth.

There is probably no class of dependants, except children, for whom almshouse care is more generally considered improper than for the insane. Experience has shown that the almshouse is incapable of providing for the insane the skilled medical attention, trained nursing, attractive environment, and intelligent direction of work and play which are essential to the cure, and desirable in the care of such patients. With some honorable exceptions the almshouse system, when followed, has proved a miserable failure, and the cause of much unnecessary suffering both to the insane and to the sane inmates of a mixed institution. While some of the more enlightened states retain a mixed system of state and county or town care, state care for the supposedly curable and county or town care

for the supposedly incurable, many states, especially in the West, and such states in the East as New York,— which has nearly one-fifth of the total insane population of the United States,— have a system of complete state care and state maintenance, which is probably the best system which has yet been devised for the care of this unfortunate class.

Epileptics are beginning to secure a recognition of their claims to treatment apart from the insane, the feeble-minded, and ordinary almshouse inmates. The fact that epileptics need special treatment has been proved by the wonderful results which have been obtained when they have been given such treatment. The cures achieved in many of the cases, and the great improvement made in nearly all which have been treated at special institutions, as well as the large extent to which epileptics can contribute to their own support when properly directed, should be an encouragement to all states to establish hospitals or colonies for this class of dependants. It is obviously a hardship to retain epileptics in almshouses, where they have no opportunities for improvement, and where their presence is a source of disgust and danger to other inmates.

In addition to these nervous diseases there are hospital cases of various sorts which cannot receive proper treatment in an almshouse. Ordinary contagious diseases have nearly always been excluded; but that most prevalent of contagious diseases — consumption — has been freely admitted. In view of the modern opinion as to the nature of this disease, some few states are establishing separate institutions for its treatment. Massachusetts already has its state sanitarium; and New York is about to establish a similar institution for the treatment of incipient cases, while provision has been made for the establishment of local institutions for persons in more advanced stages of the disease. It is, of course, inhumane to subject ordinary almshouse inmates to the danger of contracting pulmonary tuberculosis, and the surest way to provide against such contagion is to isolate those affected in a separate institution.

Cases of acute diseases are not generally treated in almshouses, and cannot properly be treated in such a place. In localities where there are public hospitals or private hospitals to which patients can be sent at public expense, these agencies are commonly used, and should be used whenever possible. In rural districts, where outdoor relief is given, the sick are generally treated in their own homes.

A class of cases which is too frequently received at almshouses is confinement cases. Such should be sent, whenever possible, to a hospital or placed in the care of private charity. A young woman is not benefited by almshouse life, and it is unfortunate that any child should have the almshouse stigma attached to its birth and infancy.

That any or all of the above classes of dependants cannot continuously receive proper care and treatment in an almshouse is obvious to any one who studies the history of almshouse experiments along these lines. But, even if such work could be done properly by an almshouse, it could not be done also economically. To run an almshouse properly, when it has an assorted population of all kinds and conditions of dependants and defectives, would require in the superintendent a combination of special qualifications which no one human being could possibly possess, and would require an amount of money which no almshouse ever received honestly from the public treasury. A single almshouse with a miscellaneous population has not a sufficient number of inmates of any one class for purposes of classification; and either each individual must be put in a class by himself or a rough average must be struck, which probably will not secure just the right sort of care for any individual. Medical superintendents of hospitals for the insane say that proper classification of their patients demands about ten wards for each sex. A reformatory generally divides its inmates into at least four classes. The feeble-minded, idiotic, epileptic, and other defectives also require careful grading; and only large numbers make this possible without excessive expense. The welfare of the inmates themselves, the safety of society, and the economy of public money demand the segregation of each of these classes of defectives in separate institutions under skilled management.

If all the different classes of dependants and defectives who are in need of special treatment, which cannot, under ordinary conditions, be properly furnished in the almshouse, are provided for outside the almshouse, who then remains in the almshouse? Clearly, only those aged and infirm persons who are unable to support themselves and are without relatives to support them. To meet their needs, an institution should be something between a hospital and a home. The word which perhaps best conveys the idea is the Ohio name,—infirmary.

Even when the almshouse approaches this ideal, if we may use such a word in this connection, its problems are not solved. If that fundamental principle of almshouse administration, the classification of the inmates, may be regarded as divided into two parts,— the classifying out of the almshouse of the classes that do not belong in it, and the classifying into and in the almshouse of the classes that do belong in it,— then the second half of the work still remains to be done. The actual and proper almshouse inmates still belong to several classes, and must be classified on the basis of sex, health, character, and individual preferences.

Of course, the fundamental rule of classification is the complete separation of the sexes. This is so obvious that it hardly needs to be dwelt upon here. Separation means not only separate sleeping and living rooms, but separate dining-rooms, separate yards, separate parts of the buildings and grounds, or separate buildings and grounds. While it sometimes happens that the population of an almshouse consists for months at a time of aged persons for whom stringent regulations of this sort seem unnecessary, there are always likely to be admitted persons for whom such precautions are indispensable; and it is best to have permanent rules which will cover such cases. It should be impossible for men and women to make acquaintances in the almshouse which, though safeguarded in the institution, can be continued outside if the inmates choose to leave.

The sick should be separated from the well, and provided for in infirmary rooms or hospitals under the care of physicians and trained nurses. Further than this, the seriously ill and dying should be separated from ordinary cases of illness; and patients afflicted with consumption or other communicable diseases, if received at all, should be kept apart from one another and from the others. Besides the separation of the hospital cases from those inmates who are comparatively well, the arrangement of inmates by wards should regard in a general way the degree of infirmity; and those who are likely to require somewhat more than ordinary attendance should be placed in wards where more and abler attendants are in charge.

A classification on the basis of character, habits, and degree of refinement, is of the greatest importance to the inmates themselves. It is, of course, a hardship to respectable persons, who have seen better days, to associate with paupers of disreputable life or low habits; but, aside from these obvious lines of demarcation, minor

and subtle social difference must be regarded if the inmates are to be kept contented. The ordinary almshouse "old lady" is a person of little tolerance or sympathy and extraordinary sensitiveness to fine distinctions in the social position of herself and her fellow-inmates. Individual likes and dislikes are generally very strong, and must be regarded to a certain extent in deciding which inmates should occupy the same sleeping and sitting rooms or sit next to one another at the table. A kind and tactful matron can be depended upon to arrange the inmates according to the physical, moral, and social peculiarities of the individual, though the principle of classification is not easy to formulate; for classification, when thoroughly carried out, becomes individualization.

As the population of the almshouse approaches uniformity, classification within the almshouse becomes of less importance. The almshouse becomes simply an institution for one class of the state's dependants.

But, unfortunately, the progress toward uniformity is not rapid. In point of fact there is probably not an almshouse in the United States which is free from unsuitable inmates. The problem of classification is thus variously complicated by improper conditions. We cannot, however, make exhaustive rules for the almshouse care of defectives and delinquents who, we think, should never be received at such an institution. We cannot discuss the care of children in almshouses, for no child who is old enough and has mind enough to be influenced by its surroundings should ever be cared for in an almshouse. Nor can we take up the care of the insane in almshouses, except to deplore the fact that an insane person is ever subjected to almshouse care.

There are certain classes of defectives, however, whom we cannot perhaps reasonably expect every state to provide for immediately or completely outside the almshouse. In some states the numbers of such defectives have become very great before the first steps are taken toward making suitable provision for them. In other states their numbers are so few that the need of their segregation under more suitable conditions is not considered urgent by a short-sighted public that, rather than spend a dollar for prevention, will wait until a million is needed for cure.

Defective inmates should, of course, be given special care. Idiots should be entirely separated from other inmates, for it is a hardship

for others to be forced to associate with them. They should be under constant supervision, and should be kept perfectly clean. The feeble-minded should be usefully employed to the extent of their ability; but they should be kept under strict supervision, especially the women, who should not be allowed to work in parts of the buildings where they are likely to meet men. Epileptics should be occupied and fed in strict accordance with a physician's orders; and, if possible, a specialist should direct the treatment of such cases. They should never be left alone, lest they injure themselves during their epileptic seizures. Reformatory cases should be kept apart, not only from the other inmates, but, to a considerable extent, from one another, lest their demoralizing influence should be strengthened. They should be fully employed under careful supervision.

After a decision has been reached as to who belong in the almshouse, the next point to be considered is what sort of buildings and equipment are needed for the proper care of such persons.

The location of the almshouse is an important matter, regarding which the public mind cherishes a delusion. The "County Farm" has become almost synonymous with the "County House," and the necessity for a farm seems to be regarded as axiomatic. The farm idea is outliving its usefulness. It did very well a generation ago, but its day is passing. The great reduction in the price of agricultural products which has occurred during the past twenty-five years makes it cheaper, on the whole, for an almshouse to buy most of its food supplies than to raise them. When the almshouse ceases to maintain able-bodied inmates, when the insane and the epileptic, who are often benefited by farm work, are removed to special institutions, then the need of a farm ceases to be important. While the acreage should be sufficient to provide vegetable gardens, it is doubtful whether at the present day a county farm is a good investment of public money. If the almshouse is an infirmary for the aged, it should be situated in the vicinity, and within easy reach of the largest town in the county, where it can enjoy the advantages of the cheapest market and the best medical service, and where the inmates can be visited by their friends, and have other privileges which are difficult to secure in the country.

The construction of almshouse buildings in the older states has gone through three clearly marked stages of evolution. The first may be called the "converted farm-house" stage. When young and

small communities began to collect their poor from the family homes where they had boarded them, according to the primitive custom of still earlier days, they purchased for their use a dwelling-house,— generally a farm-house on a farm,— which, by simple makeshifts, was changed into something like an institution. When this humble home was outgrown or worn out,— in the older states about the middle of the century and for a generation later,— a new almshouse would be built; and the stage exemplified by the new building may be called that of the "imposing edifice." The architecture of this period was from the outside in; the building was planned for the admiration of the passers-by rather than for the comfort of the inhabitants. It was generally four or five stories high, regardless of the infirmities of its inmates, perfectly symmetrical, though the male population was generally two or three times the female, and in other respects planned without apparent reference to the uses to which it was to be put. The third stage, which was entered upon during the last quarter of the century, and which still prevails, is the so-called "cottage plan,"— a plan which seems to combine the benefits of both previous plans without their defects. The cottage plan may be roughly described as a group of houses connected by passages. An almshouse of this type, in its simplest form, consists of a cottage for men and a cottage for women, and between them an administration building with offices and living quarters of officers and employees, kitchens, dining-rooms, laundry, store-rooms, etc. This arrangement may be varied by adding a cottage in front of the administration building for the residence of the superintendent; a separate hospital building may be added to the group; and the number of cottages on one side may be increased without interfering with the other side.

No building for the accommodation of almshouse inmates should be more than two stories in height. As a general rule, the dormitories and bedrooms should be on the second floor, and the day-rooms on the first floor, so that one floor can be thoroughly aired during the day, and the other during the night. A mixed system of dormitories and small bedrooms is best adapted to the needs of almshouse inmates. Most of the men can be accommodated in dormitories; but few women are happy under such conditions, and it is a hardship to force respectable old women, who are used to privacy, to spend the last years of their life in unhomelike surroundings. Every almshouse should have either suitable infirmary rooms or a

separate hospital building, situated with special reference to facilitating supervision, and providing good ventilation, plumbing, and heating, and abundance of sunlight.

It is impossible to describe in detail the proper construction, arrangement, equipment, and management of an almshouse; and these are matters regarding which there are differences of opinion, and which in some measure are determined by local conditions. A few words may be said, however, regarding the important matter of officers and employees. Perhaps the most common and the most serious defect of almshouses is the insufficiency or the inefficiency, or both, of the attendants. The keeper, though frequently chosen for experience in machine politics rather than in administrative work, is generally well-meaning and possessed of ordinarily good judgment. The matron, while usually appointed for no other reason than that she is the wife of the keeper, frequently brings to her work a thorough knowledge of housekeeping, a conscientious devotion to her work, and an abundance of sympathy and tact. But beyond these two officers there is generally nothing but "hired girls" and "farm hands." One of the most important, if not absolutely indispensable, of employees is usually lacking. This is the nurse. Every almshouse should have at least one trained nurse to take charge of the hospital or infirmary department under the direction of the physician. Such a nurse is not only of invaluable assistance to the doctor, by carrying out his orders with implicit obedience, and by being able to act independently and intelligently in emergencies, but she introduces a higher standard of cleanliness and order in all departments of the institution. The matron and the nurse should be assisted by a sufficient number of carefully selected attendants, who, while not requiring for their work great executive ability and special training, should possess in a high degree such moral qualities as patience, sympathy, cheerfulness, and conscientious devotion to duty.

Without good officers no institution can do good work, however well equipped or well supported it may be; but with good men and women in charge, and a sufficient number of them, the well-being of the inmates is assured.

If an almshouse is a failure,—and many almshouses are,—it may have itself to blame or it may not. In the one case inefficient men and bad methods may keep the almshouse from doing its proper work; in the other case the trouble may be due to the fact that the almshouse

is trying to do alone the work which should be divided up among many charities, private and public. The real trouble with most almshouses is probably a combination of these two defects. For the first trouble the only remedy is better government, purer politics, greater and more intelligent public interest in the performance of public duties. For the second trouble we would prescribe a transfer to the state of work which counties and cities prove they cannot do.

State hospitals and asylums and colonies are, from one point of view, but the offshoots of the original almshouse stock. The almshouse cannot be studied as an isolated institution. Its proper organization is conditioned on the existence of institutions for those classes of dependants which it cannot properly care for, but which will inevitably drift into it if there is no special provision made for them. A state's charitable institutions, both public and private, are interdependent.

But, while all other charitable institutions may be regarded as offshoots of the almshouse, they have taken a large part of its vitality. Little by little the correction of its evils has diminished its importance, until we can almost see the day when it will be hardly more than a home for the aged, differing only from other homes of this class in being maintained by public instead of private charity. Indeed, it is not clear that the almshouse may not actually cease to exist, with the multiplication of institutions for special classes and the more perfect co-operation between public and private charitable agencies which we look for in the future.

DWELLINGS OF THE POOR IN THE SMALLER CITIES.

BY EMILY E. WILLIAMSON.

One of the most important factors in the development of the physical, moral, and intellectual, is the "dwelling." In it the life of the family is passed. It is the sphere in which every individual has a part. The inconveniences, physical and moral, of unsanitary dwellings inhabited by the working classes and the poor, no one denies. The overcrowding with its following of disease of all kinds and its accompaniment of crime and vice, has been oftentimes brought to light. The curse is universal. It is to be met in all its saddest conditions in France, in England, in the United States, in Germany, in Switzerland, in Belgium, and in Holland. Still, great advance has been made in alleviating the conditions surrounding tenement life. This was brought out very forcibly by Jacob Riis in his address at one of the meetings of the Tenement-house Exhibit in New York. He showed that during the last twenty-five years great improvement had been made in the architecture and sanitary arrangement of the tenements throughout the country. He gave at that time a very interesting sketch of work done by commissioners twenty-five years ago, appointed by the New York legislature. Governor Roosevelt, in an address made at the opening of the Tenement-house Exhibit, said many things which were of immense importance. One remark of his made a great impression upon a large number of people. He said that "he considered on the whole that no movement is so vital to the well-being of our people as that of tenement-house reform. If we succeed in upbuilding the material and, therefore, moral side of what is the foundation of the real life in our cities, we shall have taken a longer stride than is possible in any other way toward a solution of the great civic problems with which we are confronted. The present movement for better tenement houses is an effort to cut at the root of the diseases which eat at the body social and the body politic." Among the most efficacious means of influencing the homes of the working class must be set the improvement of ways of communication and cheapness of transport. Very satisfactory results have

been attained by private citizens in building model houses for the working class in the smaller cities. The working classes who are in the easiest circumstances, who earn a regular wage, have in some places their requirements from this source. It is undoubtedly to the interest of private industry, of philanthropic enterprise, of associations of workingmen, to provide better dwellings. If the dwellings set apart for workingmen should bring in a fair revenue, their number would at once increase. Work along these lines must proceed step by step. We must offer houses relatively comfortable and healthy, with the option of the tenants to become owners.

Dr. E. R. L. Gould, president of the New York City Suburban Homes Company, when asked, "Will improved housing pay?" answered: "It will. It has paid right in New York and in the suburbs."

The building societies of America have done a great deal for the workingman, probably more in the small cities than in the large ones. The peculiarity of their advances is that they are repayable, capital and interest, by monthly payments. It follows that these societies receive a portion of their capital at once. They are able to make advances much larger in proportion to the actual value of the mortgaged property than an ordinary creditor. The advantages to the persons of small earnings are very great. The workingman earning steady wages is able to buy his own house, and often becomes the owner of it at the end of twelve years for a sum very little in advance of what he would have had to pay in rent.

In the town of Leeds, England, during the past twenty years, 1,800 houses have passed through the hands of the Leeds Permanent Building Society, the average value of each house being $830. The same amount of business has been done in Newcastle, Birmingham, and Bristol.

In Philadelphia it is calculated that over sixty thousand workingmen own their own homes. The rapid development along these lines shows a decided tendency on the part of the workingman to own his own home; and; whenever the opportunity is given him, he is very quick to take advantage of it. In the smaller cities of the United States this system of purchasing homes has taken deep root. In the city of Elizabeth, N.J., which is a manufacturing centre and a city of over 50,000 inhabitants, many hundreds of workingmen have built their own homes during the past ten years. This has led to the

gradual extinction of the small tenements. This same can be said of most of the manufacturing cities of the United States. Individual ownership is a long step in the direction of moral and physical improvement.

In New England manufacturing towns the home stands pre-eminent in the minds of the working class. Every man and woman and often all of the children of the family take a pride and pleasure in keeping and supporting a home. At the recent Tenement-house Exhibit in New York City, which was the finest collection of pictures and models of its kind, the tenements of the small cities did not receive the attention that their condition warranted. This was due to the fact that there was a lack of interest on the part of persons who were asked to report for the small cities. A few photographs gave an idea of the conditions and horrors of small tenements, but they failed to give any idea of the needs. In the large cities the air space, the air shaft, and other important objects were easily photographed, showing the needs. In the small cities the air shaft is not the vital point, although the lack of proper air space for each inmate is. It is the tendency of the poor in small cities to huddle themselves together. And again, owing to the scarcity of tenements, the workingman is often obliged to take what he can get without the power of objecting. In one hundred of the smaller cities which I have visited or heard from, I find that there are ordinances regulating sanitary conditions, lighting and cleanliness inside and out; but they are not enforced, owing to a lack of public sentiment. In every state, in every municipality, large and small, there are laws which are excellent; but they are no good without a public sentiment back of them, calling for their enforcement. The local boards of health should have adequate power to investigate and to order the enforcement of laws and ordinances. They generally claim that they are hampered by small appropriations, which will only allow them to consider and investigate complaints.

The kindergarten and day nursery visitors have become factors for good in this direction. Reports made by them to the women managers of these charities have brought about good results in the enforcement of the laws in many small cities.

The large cities have the lack of space to contend with. In the small cities this is not generally the case; and yet in the small cities

we find the tenements, as a rule, crowded together in the worst possible positions the cities afford. I found this to be the case in twenty out of thirty of the smaller cities of the East which I visited or from which I have received accurate accounts from specialists. In the cities of Connecticut, New Jersey, Maine, Vermont, and in Delaware the tenements are generally located in the old parts of the city, and are almost always the cast-off residences of the rich, that in their best days did not contain any sanitary arrangements, and in which these have been added in the cheapest and flimsiest manner.

In many of the tenements of the small cities, I found that staircases had been removed, which were broad and spacious, to be replaced by small narrow stairs, so that the halls could be used for closets. The former grandeur of these buildings, with their discolored and stained decorations, was out of harmony with the surroundings, and not an embellishment to enhance or purify surroundings. This class of tenements are to be found in the old cities of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, and, in fact, all of the smaller cities of the East. The great trouble in connection with the majority of these tenements is the inadequate sanitary arrangements and the overcrowding. In Stamford, Norwalk, New Haven, Bridgeport, Conn., Trenton, Bayonne, Greenville, the Oranges, Elizabeth, Norristown, and Kahway, N.J., Wilmington, and some of the small towns of Delaware, and even in Bennington, Vt., and in Bangor, Me., will be found all these conditions.

The small tenements are generally three stories high, with basement. If single, 25 x 35 feet; if double, 50 x 35 feet. On each floor back of the stairs is a sink for the use of the occupants of that floor, with a faucet for cold water. Sometimes toilet arrangements will be found on one floor for all the occupants. There are generally four rooms on a floor,—two large ones and two small ones,—unless it is a double tenement, when there are eight rooms. In the more respectable tenements of this kind the front room is the kitchen, parlor, and dining-room, the back room is the bedroom for the women of the family, and the hall bedrooms for the boys and men. But, in sixteen out of twenty-five which I personally investigated in the cities of New Jersey and Connecticut, I found that the hall bedrooms were rented to lodgers; and in the two larger rooms, night and day, were crowded together anywhere from seven to ten men, women, and children of both sexes. Owing to the scarcity of tene-

miserable as possible. In Wilmington, Del., and Trenton, N.J., and in the Southern states, they will be found in large numbers.

Men, women, children, and dogs lived in the basement. Things were a little better on the second floor, but the improvement was slight. In the attic there was no pretence at separation of the sexes. From eight to ten persons in the basements, five to six on the first floor, five to seven in the attic. Average rent received from these houses, $15 per month.,—$5 for basement, $7 for first floor, and $3 for attic. The immorality and vice in this class of tenements is great. In the cities of the East the poor colored laborer occupies them largely. The condition of the above-described tenements is about the same in all of the small cities of the East.

I find that the more thrifty and intelligent of the colored workingmen is taking advantage of the building and loan association funds. In the city of Elizabeth, N.J., $125,000 has already been invested by the colored men in this way.

The smaller cities of New Jersey have been suffering from an influx of the sweat-shop workers, who have been driven out of New York by the new sanitary code. These workers occupy the smaller tenements in the small cities, such as Bayonne and Greenville. The inspections made of these dwellings by the persons interested in the Consumers' League show that the most unsanitary conditions prevail, and that the crowding is terrible. The trolley cars running direct from the Jersey City and Hoboken ferries have made it easy for the sweat-shop workers to live in the small cities of New Jersey.

I remember a very interesting visit I made to three tenements in Orange, N.J. One was composed of two large rooms and two hall rooms. In it lived a father and mother and five children. The woman was one of the class that betters herself under almost any condition. She had arrived at the dignity of table-cloths. The front room, which was parlor, kitchen, and dining-room, was really remarkable in its arrangements. Every available bit of space had been utilized. Corner cupboards for china could not be reached without moving a sofa, a table, and a chest of drawers. The sofa and table had to be moved every time a meal was prepared and the dishes needed. Two chairs in the room were adorned with curtains, and I could not resist the temptation to ask why. The good woman immediately showed me two boxes with doors fitted under them, in

one of which were kept the best bonnets and hats, and in the other dresses, trousers, and coats. The interest accruing to the landlord on the first class of tenements described is generally 10 per cent. In a number of cases I found it amounted to 15 per cent. The average rent for a floor is $7 per month.

If the local boards of health should do their entire duty and enforce the laws, better conditions would prevail. They have it in their power to make the landlords *insist* upon the tenants keeping the hallways and stairs clean; but, generally, tenement property is owned by persons who have a local political pull, and with whom it will not do to interfere.

In some of the cities which I have mentioned, women, through the civic departments of their clubs, have hounded the boards of health with excellent results. All over the Uuited States club women are realizing that it is their duty to take part in municipal housekeeping. The direct results of this movement can be seen in the great improvement in the paving of the streets of the small cities of New Jersey and Connecticut and in the following up of the scavenger.

The following are some suggestions in connection with the building of small tenement houses: —

First, that they should be built with facilities given to the tenant to become owner by means of annual instalments. And, where the conditions permit it, little gardens should be added in the interest of the workingman and his family. They should be so built that tenants do not meet on the staircases and landings. All tenements should be well lighted. There should always be a division into three rooms, in order to permit the separation of the sexes.

It is necessary to cultivate a healthy tone of public opinion, so that the tenements of the small cities can be made better or demolished; and this, I believe, can be accomplished by encouraging the workingman himself to demand sanitary improvements and better housing, by reporting all violations of the laws regulating the care of such property, and by repeatedly bringing to the notice of the landlords needed improvements, and by showing a proper appreciation of private initiative.

All human beings should have ample air and space surrounding the places in which they work, play, and sleep. The workingman who persists in living in the town does not realize that his higher wages are swallowed up by the cost of living, in addition to which

he loses his detached house. The practice now in use in our manufacturing cities of transferring workshops and work-people into the rural districts should be encouraged. It is certainly advantageous to all parties concerned to have many kinds of manufactures distributed throughout the country, to have the communities of workers well housed with plenty of space. This country is so intersected with railroads that it invites such a development on the part of capitalists, though the capitalists' arguments for concentration are sometimes hard to meet. The need of proper tenements for the working classes often drives a respectable workingman to living in cities removed from the factory. This has been the case in Bayonne, N.J., the mechanics working in a typewriter machine factory refusing to move their families to Bayonne on account of the lack of proper tenements. During the last few years the public and responsible authorities seem to have realized the pressing need of breathing spaces and green spots where relief from the monotony and roar of the streets may be found. Pleasant recreation grounds are gradually being provided throughout the country.

The recent developments brought about by the New York Tenement-house Commission and Exhibit, with the co-operation of Governor Roosevelt, has created a public sentiment which is growing all over the United States. In its development it must not be forgotten that the evil of overcrowding is as great in the small cities as in the large ones, and that the tenements of the rural districts need attention quite as much as the tenements of the large cities.

IX.

State Boards and Commissions.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

BY LEONTINE LINCOLN, CHAIRMAN, FALL RIVER, MASS.

To those familiar with the practical workings of state boards and commissions the question of their advantage and necessity seems to have been so definitely settled in the affirmative that no little surprise is occasioned when from time to time there seems to be a disposition to reopen the discussion. An advocate of such boards feels very much as Senator Sumner once expressed himself when in a debate an opponent asked him to consider for a moment the other side of the question; and the senator answered, "There is but one side to the question."

The subject of state boards and commissions has been so often and so thoroughly discussed at the sessions of this Conference, which indeed is the creation of state boards, that little can now be said beyond restating former arguments, recording progress made in the establishment of boards and the growth of their work. After the comprehensive reports of Mr. Sanborn and Dr. Wines the conclusive argument in their favor would seem to have been made.

While the practice of charity is as old as the annals of the human race, no record existing of a time when the inequalities in natural endowments, in opportunities, and in material possessions, did not make necessary the distinctions of rich and poor, of benefactors and beneficiaries, yet charity, whether practised from religious duty, political expediency, or from philanthropic motive, was never effective and intelligent in its results until treated as essentially an economic question. It is to be admitted, however, that all the motives mentioned have co-operated to this end.

Although the earlier writers on political economy are well-nigh

silent on the subject of charity, yet it has played no small part in the discussion of the problems of that science. And, while it did not appear conspicuously as an economic question until our own century, it became such from the moment of the adoption of the well-known Act, 43 Queen Elizabeth, which introduced into English law the principle of public charity and the "poor tax."

For charity touches a vital point in the economic system. The economist, dwelling upon the economic evil to society of "unproductive consumption" and upon the necessity of constantly enlarging the fund of capital "destined for purposes of reproduction," consistently shows that all the assistance rendered by charity, whether given by individuals from their private possessions or earnings or by the government through taxation, is withdrawn from the country's income or its savings, is spent in "unproductive consumption," diminishes the capital available for productive purposes, and consequently affects the permanent economic prosperity of the community.

The welfare of society, therefore, demands of the state a double duty. As the organ of society, it is under obligation both to benefactor and beneficiary. As the natural guardian of the delinquent, defective, and dependent classes, it should see that they have the best care which their condition and necessities require. Its duty to the industrious, the competent, and the thrifty, upon whom its highest well-being depends, requires it to see that this is done with the least burden to them consistent with such care.

It should be noted that the delinquent classes are to be considered in any discussion of charity; for, while protection to society is the first consideration in their care, the underlying motive is philanthropic.

And the state has not done its full duty to society when it has provided institutions of care and agencies of distribution of its bounty. Protection alike to those who receive, those who administer, and those who provide, demands the establishment of a strong central authority, with power to inspect, to investigate, to supervise, to co-ordinate activities, to furnish all needed information, and to report and attest results.

The state board is a natural evolution from the principle of public charity.

In reviewing the history of charity in our country, it seems strange

that it was not until the last half of our century that this duty of state supervision, through authoritative boards, was recognized by their establishment.

The first state board, that of Massachusetts, was not established until 1863. The states of Ohio and New York established boards in 1868, Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island in 1869, and Kansas in 1873. To-day twenty-five states have state boards or commissions, with varying functions of supervision or control; namely, Colorado, Connecticut, Georgia (Board of Prison Commissioners), Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, (Lunacy Commission), Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, (Board of Public Lands and Buildings), New Hampshire, New Jersey (State Board of Children's Guardians), New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

The movement is constantly extending. A bill was introduced into the Fifty-sixth Congress for the establishment of a board for the District of Columbia, the new constitution of Louisiana requires the establishment of a board in that state, and the question of establishing boards in other states is being urged with encouraging prospects of success,— notably for state boards of charity in New Jersey, Maryland, California, and Nebraska.

The tendency, noted by Mr. Sanborn in 1887, for the states to enlarge rather than restrict the powers of boards, continues.

The changes in the functions of boards and increase of their authority are shown in the history of the first board established,— that of Massachusetts. That board, when established in 1863, was charged with "the whole system of state charities and corrections."

In 1869 its duties were changed by the establishment of the Board of Health and Vital Statistics, and in 1875 by the transfer to the State Board of Education of the supervision of the institutions for the care of the deaf, dumb, and blind.

Acts of the years 1865, 1866, 1870, and 1877, enlarged its powers by charging it with the execution of the laws relating to the unsettled poor of the cities and towns and to the minor wards of the state.

In 1879 the supervision of the institutions of correction was placed under control of the Board of Commissioners of Prisons, the Board of State Charities was abolished, and the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity was established. To its other duties

were added those formerly assigned to the Board of Health and Vital Statistics, and that board was discontinued.

In 1886 the State Board of Health was established; and the law provided that the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity should thereafter be known as the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. In 1898 the State Board of Insanity was established, charged with the functions formerly held as a board of lunacy by the State Board of Lunacy and Charity, and a law passed designating the latter board as the State Board of Charity.

Massachusetts now has for the supervision of its charity and correctional interests separate boards of Health, of Charity, of Insanity, and a board of Commissioners of Prisons. New York also has a State Board of Charities, a State Commission in Lunacy, and a State Commission of Prisons. A marked tendency is observable in the judgment of experts to favor this division and specialization of the work of boards as well as an increase of their powers.

From the first the boards have seemed to be divided into two general classes,— advisory boards with authority to inspect, report, and recommend; and boards of control, with full executive powers. And yet comparatively few boards belong exclusively to either class.

The Massachusetts board, for instance, which is a supervisory board, as far as institutions are concerned, has had extensive executive powers added from time to time, as in the care of unsettled poor, neglected and dependent children, and the younger juvenile offenders. The New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois boards also are invested with large executive powers, and many other boards with special executive duties.

The boards of control, with full executive powers and acting as state boards of trustees, are those of Iowa, Kansas, Rhode Island, Nebraska, South Dakota, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

The discussion as to the advantages of state boards has given place largely to discussion as to their proper powers and functions. It is not the purpose of this report to enter upon a discussion of that question, as it will be fully treated from different points of view and experience in the papers which are to follow.

That there is an obvious advantage in the appointment of members of boards and commissions by the governor of the state, with confirmation of the appointments by his executive council or the state legislature, is generally conceded. And there is a great ad-

vantage in selecting the members from various callings, especially on advisory boards, in order that the problems to be solved may be considered from as many points of view as possible. The doctrinaire and the layman, the capitalist and the toiler, the professional man and the man of practical affairs, and woman with her intuitive sensibility, her enlarged vision and broad sympathy,— all should be called to co-operate in this high public service.

The members of a board cannot be expected to be familiar with all the details of the work any more than directors of a great corporation are expected to be familiar with all the details of a vast business. It is more properly their function to devise general plans and policies of administration, leaving details to executive officers and their subordinates, who should be held to strict account and responsibility.

But all the persons charged with executive duties should be men and women thoroughly trained to the work. The administration of this work has become a profession in itself, demanding the highest qualities of head and heart. It demands men and women of a peculiar and exceptional combination of qualifications: of marked executive ability; of sympathy, tempered with judgment; of extensive knowledge of human nature. They must be conservative, holding on to the best of the old; progressive, recognizing and adopting the best of the new. Experience should have made them familiar with the work in every form, as there are almost as many problems to solve as there are individual cases to consider.

Such officers should enter on their work as a life vocation. It offers no proper place for ambitious young men seeking political position and advancement: it should offer no place for the politician seeking reward for party service. If civil service principles should apply in any branch of the public service it should be in this responsible and humane work.

The salaries paid in this service are too often inadequate to the work done and the high order of ability required compared with the compensation in callings which demand less expert knowledge and ability and where the work is of a far less important and far-reaching nature. It is surprising that so many persons of commanding ability can be found willing to sacrifice their personal interests to their devotion to this work for humanity. But the fact that many are willing to make personal sacrifice in the public service does not relieve the state from a manifest duty in the matter.

Practical suggestions by way of inprovement in the work of boards will undoubtedly be offered in the discussions of this session; but there is one practical need to which this report would especially call attention, and that is the desirability of a more uniform method of compiling statistical tables.

Boards are expected, of course, to report first and principally on what is considered of special interest and importance in their respective states; but there are certain statistics of great value for purposes of comparison and for national use, which will readily suggest themselves to the student of sociology, to the tax-payer, to the legislator, for which it is desirable that some uniform plan of report should be agreed upon. For instance, it would be of great public service if such statistics as one of our New England states publishes, showing the comparative cost per capita of the population of its counties for relief and support, could be extended for the comparison of the states, and to obtain the aggregate for the country. Again, statistics in some states show that, while pauperism is decreasing with the increase of population, the cost thereof constantly increases. It would be of great value to know if this is a general fact. It would appear to be a proper service for this Conference to devise and recommend a form of tables for the report and preservation of data of most interest and importance for national use.

This Conference has time and again set the seal of its approval on the system of state boards and commissions; but its work in this field of endeavor is not done. It is its high duty to continue the work of informing the public mind, of creating favorable public opinion, until every state in the Union has an efficient and permanent board. For the state board is a most potent agency in the new charity, which aims to give opportunity rather than alms, and to promote independence as well as cooperation, and which will not rest satisfied with its work until a state of society exists in which none but the absolutely helpless will be the willing recipients of private or public beneficence.

THE BOARD OF CONTROL OF IOWA.

BY L. G. KINNE, CHAIRMAN, DES MOINES, IA.

To fully understand the work of this board, it is necessary to give a brief outline of some features of the law under which it was created.

The board consists of three members, who are appointed by the governor, and must be confirmed by a two-thirds vote of the Senate. The term of office is six years, and the salary $3,000 per annum and expenses. The board is subject to investigation by the joint committee of the legislature. It is made a crime for any member of the board to accept gifts from any one dealing with the institutions under its charge. If a member or an officer of an institution exercises political influence on another, or contributes money for political purposes, he must be removed from office. The design of the law is to hold the chief executive officer of each institution responsible to the board. It is made a crime for any member of the board to suggest the appointment of any person under said chief executive officer. The chief executive officer of each institution appoints and removes all subordinates. The board appoints and removes all chief executive officers. Thus we have in effect civil service, for every subordinate officer and employee of the institution knows that he holds his place at the will of the chief executive officer of such institution. Attention to duty, ability, and efficiency in service are the only tests. No appointments are influenced by any political considerations whatsoever.

Powers.

In general, the board has power to manage, control, and govern the institutions under its charge; to investigate their management and financial condition; to investigate questions of insanity of patients in state hospitals; to determine when insane persons shall be admitted to be charged to the state; to divide the state into hospital and penitentiary districts.

Duties.

The following duties are enjoined upon the board: to prepare annually a statement showing the cost of operating the institutions for the preceding year; to make biennial reports to the governor and legislature; to visit all institutions once every six months and hospitals by some of its members or its secretary once a month; to meet the superintendents quarterly in conference; to gather statistics; to publish a bulletin; to compel the providing of fire protection and fire escapes; to compel all employees handling money or property of the state to give bond; to require certain officers annually to take inventories of all the state's movable property, and quarterly of all supplies and stores; to annually fix the salaries of all officers and employees of the institutions, except the chief executive officers.

Statistics.

Under the provisions of the law the board is required to prepare and furnish each institution books and blanks for statistical records and returns; and duplicates of such books and such blanks are kept in the office of the board, and regular returns made on such blanks to the board, from which the books in the office of the board are kept. These statistical books and blanks are, as to the same kind of institutions, alike.

Complaint Record and Mechanical Restraint.

At each institution a book is required to be kept, called a Record of Complaints, where all complaints made by inmates, employees, and others must be entered, with the action of the superintendent thereon; and monthly reports of these cases are made to the board. At the hospitals for the insane and the penitentiaries there is kept what is called a Mechanical Restraint Record, wherein must be entered a memorandum of each case where restraint of any description has been applied, the character of such restraint, the time of its continuance, the causes therefor, and its effect. At the industrial schools and penitentiaries, reports are also required of all cases of punishment by means of mechanical restraint or otherwise, for infraction of the rules. Reports are made monthly of all cases to the board.

Financial Books.

The board was directed to devise the best system of keeping financial accounts, and to prepare the necessary books and blanks therefor. It has been done, and duplicate accounts of the finances of each institution are kept in the board's office. We keep no individual accounts. We keep an account, as to each institution, with the said institution, the general support fund, under classified heads, and with each separate item of every special appropriation. The credits are obtained from appropriations made by the legislature, and from reports of sales of products of the institutions from farms and shops; the debits, from vouchers sent to our office for approval, showing the purchases made. Monthly trial balances are made from our books and sent to each institution; and accompanying them is a statement showing how vouchers have been classified, so that any error of the institution book-keeper in classification may be corrected. These classified accounts are, as to general funds, as follows: (1) salaries and wages of officers and employees; (2) provisions; (3) household stores; (4) clothing; (5) fuel and light; (6) hospital and medical supplies; (7) shop, farm, and garden supplies; (8) ordinary repairs; (9) library; (10) water and ice; (11) postage and stationery; (12) transportation of inmates; (13) miscellaneous expenses; (14) contingent fund. As to special appropriations, as follows: (1) deficiency; (2) extraordinary repairs; (3) equipment; (4) land; (5) new buildings; (6) transportation; (7) miscellaneous.

There is allowed to the head of each institution a special contingent fund, not exceeding $250, for emergencies, and for expenditures out of this fund no estimate need be made; but an itemized report must be made monthly, showing what such expenditures were, the necessity therefor, and the amount thereof.

How Articles are Purchased and Paid for.

Under our present system, estimates are made by each institution superintendent, in triplicate, once a year for coal, flour, and canned goods, and every three months for supplies of all other articles. These estimates are sent to the office of the board, where they are first passed upon by the estimate clerk, who corrects errors in computation, classification, and in footings, and who attaches a mem-

orandum to each estimate, with notes, showing what he has done, and also calls attention to other matters proper for the board to consider. They are then passed upon by the board, and reduced or added to as to the amount, or changed as to estimated prices. As corrected, the estimate is approved, one copy returned to the institution and one copy filed in the office of the board. If the estimate is found especially defective or is not properly signed or certified, it is returned for correction. Supplemental estimates are allowed to cover articles omitted or where the supply is insufficient. Re-estimates are required when the articles cost more than the original estimate. Estimate blanks for articles to be paid for out of support fund are printed in black ink, and those to be paid for out of special appropriations in red ink; and vouchers payable from special appropriations are printed on red paper, and for estimates out of the special contingent fund spoken of are printed upon green paper.

After the 10th of January, April, July, and October, respectively, when the estimates are all in the hands of the board, a schedule is made up for each institution of all articles estimated for. These schedules, which at first numbered about thirty, have grown until articles are grouped under about one hundred different heads, such as groceries, cheese, crackers, etc. These schedules are so arranged as to show the general item number, estimate number, item number in estimate, quantity, measure, and article. On the right hand of the sheet is a blank for the price bid, weight, or measure, and the amount bid on the item. These are footed for each institution. There is one schedule, for instance, embracing all groceries; but all items for a single institution are under its heading. We send these schedules, with printed specifications, to all bidders and wholesalers for such goods in our own state, and to many in Chicago, St. Louis, and other cities, and to all persons who express a desire to bid. When the bids are received, they are opened, and each firm's bid on every item is scheduled, and the total of each bid footed. Samples are required for canned goods, flour, fish, salt and smoked meats, groceries, clothing, dry goods and findings, cloth, stockings, and of many other articles. These samples are arranged convenient for inspection. Our quarterly meeting of superintendents is held as soon as these schedules and samples are ready; and the superintendents inspect the samples and bids, and leave a written memorandum with the board indicating their choice. After they are

through, the board, with the assistance of one superintendent, makes the awards, the successful bidders are notified, and the several superintendents are notified of the awards, and furnished a copy of the schedule as filled out by the bidder. We fix a maximum price on such articles as tea and coffee. We fix the character and quality of certain things, such as curled hair, prunes, rice, etc., for all institutions. No goods are shipped until ordered by the several superintendents, and they are then shipped direct by the seller to the institution using them. When the goods are received at the institution, the steward and storekeeper check them in, and they are entered on the storekeeper's record; and the storekeeper is required at any time to produce the goods or proper requisitions for them. When the goods are checked in, the steward makes duplicate vouchers for the same, which are furnished to the sellers to be verified.

At the end of each month the pay-roll and all vouchers are certified to the board. They go to the estimate clerk, who compares the pay-roll with the schedule of salaries, and calls attention to errors therein. He also examines and makes memoranda as to the computation and addition in the vouchers, and then they come before the board for action. Accompanying them is a memorandum in red ink, showing the balances in the several funds, out of which these vouchers must be paid, to keep constantly before the board the fact as to whether they have balances to the credit of the institutions in these particular funds out of which the vouchers may be paid. The board examines and approves or disapproves the same, and may return the pay-roll or any voucher for correction. Whenever a successful bidder has failed to furnish the article contracted for or has furnished an inferior article, the superintendent at the institution is directed to return the goods or to make a proper rebate on the voucher. When the pay-roll and vouchers are approved, it is so indicated by the board; and the secretary makes triplicate certificates, one to the State Auditor, one to the State Treasurer, and one to be kept in the office of the board. The full amount of the pay-roll is certified to be paid the superintendent, who disburses it to the several employees; and all other bills are certified in the name of the parties to whom they are due, giving the amount thereof in each instance, and their post-office address. On receipt of these certificates and warrant from the State Auditor, the State Treasurer mails a check to each of said certified persons.

It will be observed in this connection that the Board of Control does not handle a dollar, and that the superintendent of each institution handles no money except the pay-roll, which he receives for disbursement among the employees, and what may be derived from sales of the product of farm or institution shops, which must be reported monthly and sent in to the State Treasurer. After very many examinations in different states of the system of book-keeping and the purchasing of supplies, I have found none where they are in all respects like that we pursue in our own state, and none equal to our system.

How the Stores are Accounted for and Disbursed.

The storekeeper gives bond and is held strictly accountable for all stores coming into his hands. He has a storekeeper's record. One page is headed "received," and the opposite "disbursed." On the "received" side are shown the invoice number, the number of pounds or yards, the price per pound or yard, and the aggregate cost of each item. On the "disbursed" side are shown the date of disbursement, from what invoice, the cost per pound or yard, the place sent to, and the aggregate of each item. At the top of each page is the name of the item itself. Quarterly balances are taken, and invoices of goods on hand, so that the storekeeper may know whether he has the goods in stock which the books show. By footing these pages and striking a balance, the amount of any kind of goods which should be on hand is at once apparent. Occasional invoices of all institution stocks are taken by an expert, appointed by the Board of Control, without previous notice to the storekeeper. In case a shortage appears in any such invoice, the matter is reported to the board, and investigated by some of its members, and a report made to the full board. If it is found that the shortage occurred by reason of matters beyond the control of the storekeeper, it is allowed, and a shortage requisition drawn, which is entered upon the disbursed side of the book. If no reasonable explanation is made of the shortage, the same is charged to, and collected from, the storekeeper. No goods are disbursed except on requisitions, signed by the chief executive officer; and these requisitions are in triplicate, one copy being retained by the storekeeper, one by the book-keeper, and the other returned to the Board of Control. Duplicate store-

keepers' books are kept in the office of this board for each institution. They are made up from the vouchers and requisitions above mentioned. Such articles as coal, farm implements, drugs, etc., are disbursed in gross to the engineer, farmer, or pharmacist, as the case may be.

General.

The board qualified April 6, 1898, but did not assume control of the institutions until July 1, 1898. It was authorized to direct and prepare all books and blanks for use in its office and at the several institutions. The time intervening between April 6 and July 1, 1898, was spent in preparing forms for statistical records and returns, financial books, storekeepers' records, books and blanks for complaints and mechanical restraint, and the more than eighty other forms of blanks required in the conducting of the business. Much time was also spent in visiting the institutions, and becoming acquainted with existing conditions and the needs of the institutions.

The cost of all these books and blanks which were furnished the institutions was apportioned among them, and paid by vouchers as other bills. No new buildings or improvement to cost over $300 can be erected, except on competitive bids. All blanks, blank books, and supplies for the institutions are thus bought. Before the board took charge of the institutions, the legislature reduced the per capita support for inmates in the aggregate by $100,000. And the first year of the operation of the board showed that, of the support funds allowed, over $119,000 remained unexpended, and this notwithstanding the fact that the physical condition of the institutions had been greatly improved with new and improved machinery purchased for the farms and shops; that the food and clothing furnished was far better than it had been under the old system; that the care of inmates in all respects was excellent; that the *personèl* of the employees was improved, and the conditions in every other respect far better than formerly. And this was all accomplished against a rising market, and with little reduction of salaries, mostly in case of the higher-priced employees; while the salaries of some of the lower grades of employees were raised, and the salary of women made the same as that paid men for like services. In his last report the State Treasurer computes the decrease in cost of operating the institutions under the control of this board during its first year, as

compared with the cost of the previous year "under the trustee system, at $379,490.73, or 26 $\frac{9}{10}$ per cent. . . . This saving, it is fair to presume, was not the result of unwise economics that were detrimental to the institutions. The character of the members of the Board of Control is a sufficient guarantee that such was not the case. They have been the fruits of the application of business principles and methods in the conduct of the fourteen institutions under the board."

In the last sentence the treasurer has struck the key-note as to how this board has been able to make such a large saving to the state, and at the same time improve the conditions at the institutions.

The law authorizes the board to appoint an architect, who prepares all plans for new buildings, as well as estimates for the same, and who, so far as practicable, looks after the construction of the work. Plans are prepared, for the inspection of the members of the legislature, of all proposed new buildings for which appropriations are asked, and also estimates of their cost. The board is charged with investigating the accounts of the State University, Agricultural College, and State Normal School, and must report as to whether the officers of said institutions have drawn and expended moneys according to law, and whether they have conducted the financial matters intrusted to them in a good, business-like manner.

The chief executive officer at each institution, except the wardens of the penitentiaries, draws food supplies for himself and all members of his family under twenty-one years of age from the institution stores; and he is not permitted to buy with state funds any articles of food not bought for inmates. In supplies, we use only the best patent flour and the best meats obtainable. Fresh beef must be from native steers, weighing, when dressed, from six hundred to eight hundred pounds each. Great care is taken to get all materials of a good quality, and sellers are obliged to live up to the specifications upon which their bids are based.

Fire companies have been organized and drilled by several of the institutions; and quarterly reports are required from all institutions, showing the means of fire escape and of protection against fire, and the condition of all fire apparatus, the amount of pressure attainable, and the results.

While we do not claim that our system is absolutely perfect, we do

insist that, as a whole, our law is the best yet devised for the government of such institutions, and that the system of controlling them by a central board is without doubt the best, the most satisfactory, and the most economical plan yet devised.

This board requires all officers and employees, except the chief executive, who may be in contact with inmates, to be uniformed. This, while indicating to the inmates and the stranger those who are clothed with authority, has tended greatly to efficiency and discipline, and the officers and employees in Iowa institutions present a neat, inviting, and orderly appearance: and, by reason of the fact that the board purchases material for such uniforms from the manufacturers, the employees are clad cheaper and better than they otherwise could be if using materials of equal quality.

This board, by its frequent visits, its daily correspondence, its complete system of returns and checks and blanks, and by its conference with superintendents, is in constant touch with these officers, and at all times advised of the needs of the institutions under its care. The policy of the board, which is well understood, is to promote faithful and efficient officers, who are capable, to the position of chief executive in institutions, when such places are to be filled; and this is a constant stimulant to good service.

Since the foregoing was written, the legislature has, in accordance with our suggestions, made several important amendments to the law providing for an interchange of the products of the farm or shops between the several institutions; prohibiting the levying of political assessments on employees of the board; making it a misdemeanor on the part of any person to demand or solicit from any member or employee of the board, or from any officer or employee of any institution under the control of the board, a contribution of money or other thing of value for election purposes or for the payment of the expenses of any political committee or organization.

Insane in County and Private Asylums.

The legislature has also placed under the supervision of the board all county and private institutions wherein insane persons are kept. We are required to have them visited at least twice a year, to prepare rules and regulations under which insane persons may be kept therein, to thoroughly investigate all such institutions, to remove

patients from them in case they fail to comply with such rules and regulations, to remove persons therein not insane, to remove to state hospitals violent or filthy patients. The act also fixes certain prerequisites to the incarceration of any person in a private asylum. We regard this law as exceedingly important, as its enforcement will result in bettering the conditions in county and private institutions, and in all cases insure the proper and humane treatment of their inmates.

STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

BY SAMUEL G. SMITH, D.D., ST. PAUL, MINN.

I have been asked to present to this Conference a paper on State Boards with special reference to the work of the State Board of Corrections and Charities for Minnesota. There are advantages in such a concrete method of treatment, for it permits an exhibition of the advantages and difficulties of the system within a definite field, and that field within the special scope of the writer's observation.

The disadvantages of the treatment are easily recognizable in its necessary incompleteness, since such advisory boards develop in an individual way in response to the demands of the environment furnished by each particular state. It will also be unavoidable that some matters which have received treatment at the hands of former committees will be gone over again.

However, like a well-instructed scribe, I shall endeavor to bring forth things new and old, and so advance the kingdom of wisdom and love. It should also be noted that it is upon such particular inquiries that the final statement of the whole question must be based.

In the report of the committee for 1893, of which I had the honor to be a member, an effort was made to trace the history up to that time, of nineteen central boards of charities. That paper, though signed by the full committee, was, I believe, the work of the chairman, the Hon. Oscar Craig of New York, the other members only contributing some suggestions. This admirable document sets forth the differentiations between the state boards in a lucid manner. It

also attributes to the various boards certain reforms carried forward in the several states after their organization. If the paper has limitations, they are found chiefly in the failure fully to set forth the inter-relation between the central board and the various boards of trustees of the several institutions.

In the strong report presented by Dr. Hart and others in 1889, the practical suggestions are made by which such a board may be organized and made successful. There is also a further discussion of the powers which such a board should have, the consensus of opinion favoring supervision rather than control. From this conclusion Hon. C. E. Faulkner, the honored president of the present Conference, dissented; but it has remained the doctrine favored by the majority of the leaders of this body. It seems to me, however, that the facts in the case of the Minnesota Board tend to show that the real difference between the Board of Supervision and the Board of Control is not so marked as that discussion would indicate. To be explicit, the evolution of the central board tends always toward the assumption of executive functions; but it is important to note that these functions are not direct, but in the nature of checks and balances.

With respect to the reforms credited to the various boards, I am of the opinion that the central board has not been so much the cause of reforms as it has been the organ of them. The state board becomes the channel through which the best opinion of the charity leaders in the state and throughout the country finds expression. The board is the clearing house of opinion and discussion, and furnishes in most cases the authoritative expression of results.

Central boards will be stronger with the public and more useful in performing their duties as they come more and more clearly to recognize this philosophy of their function. As a piece of literature becomes universal and valuable precisely as its author merges his personality in the organic life of his time, becoming its inspired voice, so the central board has its chief value in no straining after originality, but in the function of true leadership, achieved by a real humility in the service of its constituency and by an effort to realize its broadest altruistic life.

The Board of Corrections and Charities for the state of Minnesota was established by the legislature in 1883, just twenty years

after the organization of the first board of the kind in Massachusetts. It is composed of six members, not more than three of whom can belong to the same political party. As a rule, the members of the board have been men not actively engaged in politics, though there have been exceptions to this rule. The functions of the board are thus set forth: —

"They shall investigate the whole system of public charities and correctional institutions of the state, examine into the condition and management thereof, especially of prisons, jails, infirmaries, public hospitals, and asylums; and the officers in charge of all such institutions shall furnish to the board, on their request, such information and statistics as they may require. And, to secure accuracy, uniformity, and completeness in such statistics, the board may prescribe such forms of report and registration as they may deem essential; and all plans for new jails and infirmaries shall, before the adoption of the same by the county authorities, be submitted to said board for suggestion and criticism. The governor, in his discretion, may at any time order an investigation by the board, or by a committee of its members, of the management of any penal, reformatory, or charitable institution of the state; and said board or committee, in making any such investigation, shall have power to send for persons or papers, and to administer oaths and affirmations. And the report of such investigation, with the testimony, shall be made to the governor, and shall be submitted by him with his suggestion to the legislature."

A young clergyman of good heart and excellent brain was chosen as the first secretary of this board. He knew very little about the work or the duties of his office; but he was patient, painstaking, studious, and industrious. He was educated by his duties and by his associates, who studied the problems with him, until less than a quarter of a century later he is known as Dr. H. H. Hart, one of the best-furnished men in these subjects in this country. The contribution of such men to the public service must be accounted one of the debts which the public owes to central boards of charity.

In the beginning there was naturally more or less friction with boards of trustees. They resented what some of them called the interference of the state board. The heads of institutions did not like to furnish the statistics required. They sometimes said it was useless labor imposed upon them. They thought that the frequent

visits made to state institutions at unexpected times indicated hostility to the management. The county commissioners thought they did not want advice about jails. They knew well enough what would satisfy the voters. As time went on, members of the legislature objected to frank opinions on the subject of appropriations. But, with the lapse of time, these elements of friction have practically disappeared. The function of the state board is generally conceded to be one of the highest value, and its duties have been steadily increased.

The growth of this legislation is significant. In 1889 the legislature took action with reference to the care of the poor, and provided that no county should change from the town system to the county system or *vice versa* without consulting this board. In 1893 the legislature required the Children's Home societies, to report regularly to the board, and gave the board authority to investigate the homes where such children were placed. In the same year the law upon the jail question was extended to compel reports of the proposed cost of county jails, and declaring contracts illegal unless the advice of the board had been requested. The same act gave the board power to designate certain jails as district jails, when they met certain requirements. But the most significant feature of the law was the power given to the state board to condemn such county jails as were unfit for use, with the consent of the district judge. This part of the law has not been largely operative, except as a warning and a deterrent. But the power of condemnation makes the advice much more significant. In 1895 a similar law was enacted with respect to village lockups. The register of prisoners is to be kept and reported, the health officer is to inspect and report to the board. The main importance of this law, in the larger view of the work of the board, is the fact that it brings the state board directly into educative contact with a very large number of people. In the same year an act was passed authorizing the incorporation of a bank to loan to indigent persons on chattel security. The important fact connected with this matter is that one of the directors must be a member of the Board of Corrections and Charities, and that the articles of incorporation must be filed in the office of the board. As the enterprise was ostensibly philanthropic, this action was taken by the movers in the matter to secure favorable legislation. In the same year a law was passed for the treatment at public expense of

inebriates. The probate judges are required to make an annual report to the board.

The important legislation of 1897 giving new duties to the board was with respect to non-resident dependants, who might be admitted temporarily into state institutions; but an agent was appointed to secure their deportation to place of residence.

In 1899 the board was empowered to condemn lockups, to approve the establishment of district poorhouses, to have oversight and give consent in the matter of the importation of dependent children, to nominate probation officers for three counties in the state-nomination (to be approved by district court judges), and to employ a clerk for the analysis of accounts.

Touching that last matter: In the earlier years of the board, when the institutions of the state numbered only seven, the analysis of accounts was undertaken by the board; but, as work increased, it had been abandoned. The law making an appropriation for the purpose charged the board with the duty.

This rapid review indicates clearly the direction in the evolution of the supervisory board and the steady growth toward more and more important functions. At this rate the Board of Corrections and Charities will soon be so imbedded in the legislation of the state as to be so vital an organ in its work that one would about as soon propose to dissolve the state government as to dispense with the board.

I should like to speak briefly of the advantages of the board. They are chiefly two: First, it serves to correct the abuses, and answers all the usual objections to boards of trustees for state institutions. It furnishes almost continuous publicity to every part of their work. It co-ordinates the work of the institutions, and furnishes the various officers such knowledge as forms a basis for self-criticism. It largely performs the same service for the counties.

On the other hand, it secures all the advantages of such boards. This service is as important as the other. A large body of the best citizens is brought into contact with the various problems, and is educated with reference to them; and, in turn, these men become instructors in charity in the various communities to which they belong. The whole force becomes conspicuous and useful in the state conference of corrections and charities. These services are not performed by boards of control.

The clerical force of the board, including its secretary, is of excellent material; and, being relieved from merely detail work of buying and selling and giving minor directions, the members can devote themselves to questions which influence the whole administration. This force is like the board of control in efficiency; but relieved of its detail work, which is performed by the local trustees, their strength becomes more available. Then the members of the board itself, who serve without salary, are frequently men of greater intellectual force than the employees of the board, and are men who could not be secured to serve in clerical capacities, but who bring a wide knowledge and ripe wisdom to the service of the state without pecuniary compensation.

The drift of modern affairs is toward greater concentrations; but he reads the story of evolution incorrectly who does not know that it is co-ordination of many complex parts which marks the later development of business and the state. It is not the simplicity of earlier despotisms, but the combination of highly differentiated functions into one organic whole. This service is best rendered by a state board of corrections and charities.

I ought to emphasize the non-political character of the Minnesota Board,— a character which must be preserved by every board, advisory or executive, if its usefulness is not to be destroyed, and its putrid carcass is not to lie at last upon the dust heap of rejected things, an offence to all honest men, until its memory is consumed by Gehenna fires.

X.

Reformatories and Industrial Schools.

TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS.

BY T. J. CHARLTON, PLAINFIELD, IND.

At this, the close of our century of progress, when society has taken the greatest strides forward, when in every profession and department better methods have come into use, let us consider whether reformatory progress has been keeping pace with others.

I hold that it has done well, and you will pardon me for selecting a review of the last two decades as the period to consider; namely, "Twenty Years of Progress."

This will enable nearly all of us to survey the field. Not that we have had a Rip Van Winkle sleep from which we have suddenly awakened and found everything changed. In his case, he went to sleep when King George ruled the country. He awoke to find it governed by George Washington. In our case, we are simply amazed to see what the reformatories are doing to-day compared with what they were doing twenty years ago.

Now, in that time, many states have founded schools. Where new schools have started, they have taken steps to do their work "up to date." Although nearly four decades had elapsed since the constitution in my state was made, yet one section was allowed to escape notice until within recent years. It is as follows: "*The penal code shall be founded on the principles of reformation, and not of vindictive justice.*" The punishments of twenty years ago were all of the kind prohibited by this clause of the constitution, and a proposal then to change prisons to reformatories would have been met with the strongest disapproval.

The first note of disapproval of the then existing condition was when Governor Baker proposed in 1867 to establish the House

of Refuge. He also founded a society for the care of prison convicts after they returned to their homes.

All the industrial education imparted in the Reform School in its first days was to *cane chairs*. The Board of Control of the Indiana School in its annual report boasted that the boys caned 120,000 chairs in a year. Boys were taught that twenty years ago with us, and I know the same thing was true in other states.

In 1880 I sent an orphan boy to a home which I had procured for him. I soon received an opinion from the man to whom I sent him as to that boy's value. He believed that we should have given the boy an industrial education, and the man was right. I was compelled to confess that, except to do the work of certain departments, we had done a poor job on that boy. I read the letter to my board, and recommended that we at once make a change.

Governor Porter, who came to his office in 1880, recommended a special appropriation to teach the boys something better. Accompanied by my board and myself, he visited the Rose Polytechnic Institute at Terre Haute, then but recently established. We drew inspiration from its distinguished founder, President Thompson. His mistake was to decide that no one except a high-school graduate could learn the technical course, thus leaving this class of reform-school boys to the tender mercies of circumstances.

It looked as if there were nothing for our boys to do but something similar to their old occupation at chair-caning work. We needed a dining-hall very badly, and a kind-hearted attorney-general decided that we would be justified in erecting a new one out of maintenance money. We undertook to build it, and put boys to work on it. The result was apparent to all. We proved that boys under good officers were capable of doing all kinds of building work required. That experiment was of great value. We thereafter resolved to change our industry. Chair-caning was abolished. No one shed a tear over it. We soon established a shop where the dollar-mark was not made the measure of the output. Shops were organized to instruct boys, entirely free from the old object to make money, and where the welfare of the inmates was considered the proper thing. To make this change was no light work. Indeed, it was as the base of that which followed; and in former years it had been totally disregarded. Luckily, the school needed buildings; and one by one these were erected as fast as possible. With labor

that was purely instructive the problem was solved. It was found that the building trades could be taught, and at the same time there was a large saving to the state.

We discarded the dark basements and moved into rooms more suitable. Departments were established as suitable shops were provided. These were built with our maintenance money. Strange and pleasant it is to recall that the legislature was very ready to respond to this demand. The people were really happier over these changes, and no carping critics were ready to blacken our efforts.

The changes in the Indiana School were similar to what were made by many other schools. Great brick-yards were established, and the point was proved that what was best for the boy was best for the school. Instead of $4,000 or $5,000, the yearly output in the past, the question now was, "What can we teach boys?" Prisons dealing with adults soon took up the problem. We in Indiana moved all the older convicts into one prison and turned the other into a reformatory. Having waited so long to make reformation exclusively the object with adults, we discovered that we needed many new buildings. We then said, "Tear down the old buildings and build new ones more suitable." We did this; and the Southern prison became a state reformatory, where everything was carried on on the Elmira plan. About this time there was found to be an obstacle existing in many families: bad parents were found to exert a criminal effect on the young, and the children were taken from them and reared by proper schools under control of the Board of Children's Guardians.

In ancient Sparta it had been found that this had to be done in order to raise the proper kind of soldiers. In like manner it was found to be the plan to take such measures in order to have a good class of citizens. What the world needed was skilled labor, and this could not be got by polytechnic schools alone. In this I cannot render too much praise to the Board of State Charities. In Indiana there were found plenty of good men and women who would serve without pay on the board. These employ good men as secretaries. Mr. Alexander Johnson was the first, then Mr. Ernest Bicknell, and lastly Mr. A. W. Butler. It was a new experiment, and not at all popular at first. A prison warden asked me what I should do if I received notice that the State Board of Charities was coming to the school. I said that I would gladly welcome them.

He said he would not. He retired before the law was passed, but I took notice that at that prison and everywhere they have always been made welcome. We, who are in state work, have in this board, for the first time, a body of men and women with power to investigate; and, if we are in the right, we have some one to say so. At the Baltimore Conference I made a full report of the industries of every reform school in the United States; and many of these schools are represented in this meeting. Many changes had then been begun, many may not yet be completed. The new schools had the advantage of starting right. It was found that there was no virtue in the name, but everything in the administration.

The reformatories now constitute a great industrial army. Money appropriated has been put to some good use. The fidelity of the old institutions to chair-caning seemed to indicate that that was the chief occupation for young men; and yet, in this country, steam has now driven it all out. There is no longer opportunity for chair-caning, if resumed. In some states, measures to benefit boys are deemed sufficiently important to call for action. Curfew and compulsory laws are common.

For the benefit of those schools that do not maintain sloyd or wood-working shops, I will state by request that, without any appropriation, we were able to turn our old chair-shop, a building one hundred feet long and fifty feet wide, into a sloyd-shop. We had made for us what we regarded as a model work-bench, at just what it cost the maker. With that for a model we built forty-eight others, and fully equipped them with tools. In addition we procured two lathes. Then we employed a suitable superintendent, who was in this case both by birth and education a Swede. We were then prepared for teaching each day two classes of fifty each, or one hundred in all. We have carried on this shop ever since. A change of superintendents was accomplished without injury. We had in our employ an officer who was a rare mechanic; and, by the aid of the drawings and by the assistance of old boys, he very soon became master of the situation. So we promoted him. We keep a record of the shop, giving the boys' records, who are first-class, medium, or poor. This is made to affect the boys' standing. These records are most faithfully kept. I have seen shops for display; but a shop to do really good work, no matter what the plan, must be like a school in its administration.

"For forms of government let fools contest:
What's best administered is best."

Many schools, in order to impress the idea, changed the name to "industrial schools." It was soon found that manual training schools could be made the source of much good to reform schools. Indeed, it is this that our schools became. Now it was found that the course of manual training was best taught by reform schools, as hundreds of thousands were appropriated for them. The Industrial School at Rochester, N.Y., was the recipient of large appropriations for that purpose. This had its effect on all the other schools. The people learned the right way through a former National Conference man, Mr. W. P. Letchworth, then a member of the New York State Board of Charities, who was a leader in this work. The plant he had built was one unheard of in the "old days."

The course of study in our iron-shop is patterned partly after that at Rochester. It did not matter whether a school-room was "congregate or cottage," all alike took up the work, and both classes alike brought it to a success.

I have known many instances of boys who never showed any inclination to reform until we put them into one of these shops. The consciousness that they could do something seemed to make them feel more self-respect. This is true of all like shops. Industries at all suitable for boys have this effect. By request I have brought along a set of models such as are made in our sloyd-shop, also a set of models such as are made in our iron-shop, which I invite you to inspect.

This department has always been my particular pride, and is the outgrowth of years. At first we carried on an ordinary blacksmith-shop. I had in my mind a conception of a school-shop. But the blacksmith did not or would not do it. Finally, I visited a state Agricultural College where there was a model school-shop in operation, but accommodated less numbers than I wished. I at once went home, drew plans for the shop where thirty-two boys would be instructed, which is our iron-shop to-day.

I am very careful to carry on these shops right. The consequence is that our boys secure positions outside which they could not fill if they went from any other department. But I soon found that industrial education possesses an interest which no other can. Industrial high schools are more popular than other high schools for the reason

that pupils there learn some manual work. There is an old legend that "there was once a giantess who had a daughter. The child saw a husbandman ploughing in the field. Then she ran and took him up with her finger and thumb, and put him, his plough, and his oxen, into her apron, and carried them to her mother, and said, 'Mother, what sort of a beetle is this that I found wriggling in the sand?' But the mother said: 'Put it away, my child. We must be gone out of this land, for this people will dwell in it.'" The legend is along the lines of my address. Surely, those who maintain that the older methods were all that we wanted should see their error. They are not wanted where we have boys. I had two men call to secure employment. One has been taught in the school of industry, and the other is without any trade. One secured three times the wages of the other. This imparts to our reform-school children these special industrial lessons that will stand them a good service in time of need. I have only briefly referred you to the great secrets that have made these decades peculiarly prominent.

Those who work will be preferred to those who do not. The solution of the Indian problem depends upon it. No measure to civilize a race will ever succeed where this is forgotten. I have referred to these "Twenty Years of Progress" as depending largely upon the change for the better in the industries pursued. It was the making labor instructive instead of productive. But there are many other features that had their effect. One is, that, in all reformation, educational work has a much greater part. When I came into the work, I found the head teacher was earnestly wrestling with the problem whether a boy should count one when he came to a comma, two at a semicolon, three at a colon, and four at a period. Only the poorest employees were given a school to teach. Those who were good for nothing anywhere else were selected as teachers. The postmaster told me he dreaded letter-writing day, because the letters were so poorly directed. No proper celebration was observed throughout the year, save a specially good dinner July 4. The boys were never given any instruction as to the Declaration of Independence. Now we celebrate February 12 as Lincoln's Birthday; February 22, Washington's Birthday; Easter, April; Jefferson's Day; Memorial Day, May 30; July 4; Thanksgiving Day; Indiana Day, December 11, the date the state was admitted to the Union; and Christmas Day. I believe in celebrating these days. I really think

holidays do our boys good and fit them to become better citizens. Then, again, I think there have been many changes of treatment which have aided our boys and girls. Measures have been taken to prevent officers from wreaking vengeance on a boy at will by referring all punishment for the approval of the superintendent. This precaution is much needed.

In our school I need not mention that requiring this permit of punishment is never taken advantage of, and no officer ever dares to slap or kick or otherwise mistreat a boy. This is accomplished without in the least injuring the discipline. The boy discovers that he is made the special object and care of the authorities. The improper officer soon realizes this. The boy is also taught well the history of his country and state. When the Spanish War broke out at least three hundred of our boys enlisted; and, while it did not last long, they bore their part honorably. Some were slain among the first in the attack on Santiago Hill and on other fields. Others are in the Philippines. Adopting the old rule that all men must work or starve, they were taught to do the work required of them. No reform-school "dead beats" were honored. Instead of treating the reform-school boys as full of sentimentalism, we try to teach that real religion is that which will manifest itself in their daily life. We have only industries which aim to teach a trade. On the day they are to win their honor, they are expected to show evidence that they can follow some business. If not, then the school is in the wrong. There is nothing which we can do for a boy so important as giving him a trade by which he can make an honest living. A boy must be made a bread-earner. An honest living is the life to hold out to a boy. It is not the best thing for those who deal with delinquent boys to hold up to them those who have by chance won high positions in life in higher occupations, but it should rather be the glory of a school to be able to point to men who toil and who win their success by honest labor. Such people we cannot honor too highly. Reform-school boys should be taught to feel that, while the higher avenues are all open to them, the better road to fame is by honest industry. They should be taught habits that would lead to that end. The properly developed citizen is not the work of a day. He does not come by chance, but is developed by long years of honest training.

My fellow reformatory workers, are we doing our full day's work

with an eye single to the future citizens that we are expected to give to the land? How important that their hands and hearts be made strong in all those higher virtues that ennoble and adorn human character!

CIVIL SERVICE RULES IN STATE INSTITUTIONS.

BY W. S. HANCOCK,

SUPERINTENDENT KANSAS STATE REFORM SCHOOL FOR BOYS, NORTH TOPEKA, KAN.

Upon investigation, I find that the subject assigned me is of such importance that the annual session of this Conference for many years past has been the occasion of the presentation of an article representing some phase of the subject. The idea involved — the betterment of our state institutions — has grown in its effect and operation, though it is combated at every point by the most powerful influence in the country,— the influence of partisan politics. It is not to be expected that any original ideas on the subject will here be presented, but, rather, a presentation of the conditions surrounding the charitable institutions, and the necessity for the introduction and maintenance of better methods in the selection of those that conduct them.

I think that political parties are necessary to the proper government of a state, when a majority of its citizens create and sustain them for the good of the state, and not for the good of the party. The institutions, under such conditions, will be conducted on the highest possible plane, because such a condition of society will demand that the institutions, and those who conduct them, be of the highest possible character. The elevation of society to such a standard would of itself solve the problem; for, with such conditions existing, a standard of fitness would be the only one considered.

The duties of an officer in the state institutions require as much ability and talent as those of other professions; and they will improve as much by experience and study as will the teachers in our public schools, who are now, by force of public opinion, selected by the standard of merit alone. If we permit the

general standard of society to decline, there will be less attention paid to public and private purity and less regard for public welfare; and the political lines will be drawn more closely, until it will seem that the state was created for the party rather than the party for the state. Public institutions ought to be run for the public good rather than for the good of any partisan organization. While the political changes in Kansas during the past decade have occurred with the regularity of each succeeding two years, and the state institutions have been as often reofficered, from superintendent to dining-room attendant, the results have not been as disastrous as might have been expected, for the reason that the average Kansan possesses an amount of intelligence sufficient to enable him to grasp at once the necessity of the occasion and to adapt himself to the requirements of the work in hand. The typical ward-heeler is a comparatively unknown quantity in this state, so that, while our state institutions have suffered to some extent by the biennial changes that have occurred, they have been comparatively free from any vicious or degrading influences; and they had only to contend with the conditions born of inexperience in their management and operation.

It is not necessary here to point out the object of our state institutions. It is well known that protection to society and public security demand that our defective and delinquent classes be cared for by the state, and that there is vastly more to do than to restrain the bodies of unfortunate inmates. The principal investigation must be in the mysterious regions of feelings and emotions; and for that something more than brute force is required of those who administer the affairs of the institutions for and on behalf of the state. The conviction of crime purports to be an adjudication that the offender is dangerous to society; and a commitment to our Reform School is, as well, an adjudication that the offender may become a menace to society, and that he should not be allowed to go at large. For that reason, and for that reason alone, the state restrains him of his liberty; and the same reason (that of public welfare and safety) that demands his incarceration in the first instance demands that he should not be released until it becomes safe for society that he should go free. Confinement is in the main temporary. Therefore, the only permanent protection must be obtained by reformation, and to secure the reformation, there is a necessity for civil service rules in the selection of the officers of state institutions.

If an inmate of a reform school, having served his time, is released no better fitted to battle with the world than when first incarcerated, the object of the institution is defeated, the officers have failed of their duty, and society is in nowise benefited other than by the temporary restraining of the offender. These questions are made a study by earnest men and women, who could successfully work them out in state institutions; but, naturally, they would be overlooked, were the selection made from a party standpoint.

Under civil service rules the competent officers would be retained, when secured, and provision made for the selection in the first place. But it is well to remember that no state legislature, however well disposed, will work out the details for such a provision.

It will be necessary for some organized body — let us hope it will be a state conference of charities and corrections organized here — to outline the plans for a successful inauguration of civil service requirements. Legislative committees must be visited and labored with, and politicians be made to see the necessity for action of this kind, although it is quite likely that the politician will gladly avail himself of this avenue of escape from the pressure for place, usually brought to bear after each successful campaign.

While it may require some considerable time to establish civil service in all our state institutions, there is but little doubt in my mind that it will be ultimately accomplished; and it should be the province of this organization to materially aid in bringing it about.

Of the many reasons why civil service rules should prevail in the management of our state institutions, I will only mention a few, and have not the time to dwell on any of them. A change of administration always causes unrest among inmates, disorganizes plans for the future, creates a spirit of uneasiness, and generally demoralizes the work. Discipline usually grows lax, and all the thousand incidents of daily life are disturbed and interfered with.

In selecting persons to manage state institutions, I do not think that a collegiate education is the only thing necessary to consider, but the peculiar fitness of the individual for the position is very necessary. If a person desire to enter the public service under civil service rules, it would be necessary that he be educated and refined, with the result that, when he secured his place, he would be able to retain it, and his influence would continually operate for good upon his fellow-officers and the unfortunate wards in his charge. He would also

feel secure, knowing that his position depended upon his ability to do his work and do it well.

It is not necessary at this time to enter into details as to the character of the work that the officers of our state institutions are to perform. Whether it be a prison, a reformatory, an industrial school, a soldiers' home, or an asylum for insane, the necessity for absolute fitness on the part of the officers remains the same.

The mental or moral defects of the inmate are to be corrected or cured, and the very best talent the state affords is necessary to arouse the emotion of hope and keep it sustained, to educate and elevate, to classify and assign the almost infinite varieties of temperament and character which go to make up the population of the average state institution. If the institution be a prison or reformatory, the character of the criminal must be changed, his dominant purposes and love must be replaced by others, and the criminal instincts must be disciplined out of him, and the moral bias of his life corrected. His acts are the expression of his character. The process of changing from evil character and hereditary taints will be slow and painful. His habits must be broken in upon and changed, and the officer whose duty it is to bring this about must be absolutely tireless in his efforts; and a man, to be successful, must love his work, and the ordinary seeker after a political job falls far short of those qualifications.

There is nothing inside of a prison or a reform school that tends to improve the inmate, any more than there is something inside of a school-room which will educate children. It requires great energy, as well as good intentions and intelligence, to properly manage inmates of public institutions. It is a sin, both against the inmate and against the state, to place unfortunates inside an institution and let them alone, expecting betterment. There must always be a great activity which exhibits a true interest in the permanent welfare of every boy or man. The exercise of a trained judgment is necessary to carry on such a work as this. It is rare, indeed, that the victorious partisan possesses the skill and patience to guide and educate, to purify and elevate, to stimulate and encourage the despondent, or keep in touch with the ever-shifting impulses and sentiments found in the walls of our state institutions.

Captain H. F. Hatch, in discussing this subject, has said, "To secure a man for such work, by a partisan standpoint, is to rely upon

qualifications that are utterly worthless, and disregard those that are essential." There are positions in government, surely, to which men should be appointed whose political principles and opinions should be in harmony with those of the executive head, because this would be necessary in order to carry the work of all the departments forward on parallel lines and so avoid a conflict in the operation. But no educational, charitable, or penal institution can be counted among them.

I believe that the people are coming to know that a trained judgment, character, and capacity are as necessary to the proper conduct of the business of the state or nation as they are known to be in private business. We know that the officers of our army and navy, who have recently achieved great victories of which the whole nation is justly proud, can only be removed by court-martial, and that the government provides great schools to prepare them for their duties.

Is it more important that we have a good naval service to protect us from enemies abroad than that we have a capable service to protect us from our enemies at home? For our criminal and defective classes are certainly enemies to society and good government.

The most important thing necessary for the successful management of a state institution is to find a man to manage it that is peculiarly fitted for the position,— a man with physical courage, one who has been broadened in the world's conflicts. As a rule, a man whose life has been all sunshine will not prove to be the proper person to elevate the unfortunate.

As I have said, get the proper man for the place, allow him to surround himself with good, competent help, apply civil service rules, and you need have little fear that your state institutions will not be run on the highest possible plane.

THE MERIT AND DEMERIT SYSTEM.

BY BARNARD L. OLDS,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE STATE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL AT GOLDEN, COL.

We are beset with problems! Life at best is but a varied compound of perplexities. Among the great questions which agitate the minds of the thinking people of to-day, not the most important is the making of plans whereby large commercial values may be secured, or the pomp of power or worldly honors attained, but the more vital question, "How may the youth of our land be saved from moral ruin and taught to lead virtuous, honest, and useful lives?" With these three cardinal requisites firmly implanted in the minds of our youth, we need have no anxiety for our country's future. Without them, however, bad will rapidly become worse, and good will speedily become corrupt through contagion.

One of our most successful superintendents has said: "When every town provides at least one ungraded school for its slow boys and girls, and gives to it the best teachers, appliances, and facilities for physical culture, manual training, and sense training, the field for industrial schools will be very small."

I heartily agree with this sentiment, and firmly believe that our educational system is wrong, gone crazy at the top. If necessary,— I repeat, if necessary,— cut out Greek and Latin, sheepskins and diplomas at public cost, until manual training is taught in every school, and every possible means is used to develop and train to good citizenship the great mass of hitherto uncared for children.

The highest aim of education should be the making and moulding of character. For many years we have considered that education (book learning) for the youth was the one thing needful, and, for the unfortunates, simply a secure place in which to detain them; but more recently the great heart of mankind has expanded to the thought that all made in the image of God are entitled to consideration and a chance in life. As a consequence, we see attached to our best public schools manual training departments, that those who go out thence need not enter life's struggle destitute of a knowledge of the practical things of every-day life. Still more pleasing is the

better care of unfortunate youths, those without homes and those who come from places worse than no home at all.

Not many years ago our boys and girls were detained amid prison surroundings — uninviting walls, gloomy cells, dark dungeons. They were not supposed to have any rights, and those in charge made sure that they received none. Grim despair was made to shed its gloom over lives that should have been bathed in the sunshine of hope. To-day no one of the unfortunate classes receives more careful thought or better care than these same boys and girls. Witness the thousands of lives devoted to their best interests, the millions of dollars annually expended in their behalf. They are taught the common branches of education, manual training, the various trades, and, above all, are given a moral training with its wholesome discipline.

Those who were never taught to obey find obedience necessary; those who were never clean find cleanliness a first requirement; those who have never learned the rights of property find that the belongings of others must be respected; those who have never been instructed in matters of right and wrong find that to do and be right is the best and only safe way.

The great purpose of industrial schools is to *reform* character. I have not much belief in the influence of heredity, but have in the influence of environment. The children who come to us are not criminals in the strict sense of the word, but are rather unfortunates, morally diseased; and they are sent to us for treatment, as to a moral sanatorium. I am aware that not all superintendents agree with this view, for one of them has made the following statement regarding his own school, namely: "We wish to correct and remove the false impression that has been made on the public, through calling this an industrial school instead of a reformatory. The lines between the two are sharply defined. The reform school is a place of forcible detention, where boys of vicious habits are compelled to conform to certain rules; while an industrial school is educational, and a place where boys of correct habits are permitted to acquire knowledge. This is a reform school, and to call it anything else is to be swayed by foolish sentiment."

Are not our unfortunate boys and girls really the wards of the state? Their parents or guardians cannot or will not properly care for them; and the state must in self-defence, if for no higher and

better reason. Delinquent parents are more to be blamed than the children; and what can, or what ought to be done, for their proper control or education is another of the great problems confronting us.

From these industrial or training schools everything savoring of prison life, either in the material surroundings or discipline, has been or must be removed. These are not places of punishment for those who in a thoughtless moment have stepped aside from the path of rectitude, nor are they places simply for their enforced detention and isolation from society, but homes, provided at public expense, where they may be led into ways of upright living by kindness. They must be taught that that is the best way by the daily example of those who follow Him who laid down the broad principles of Christianity. They must be strengthened and encouraged till right living becomes a habit,— yea, more, a controlling principle for all time. Dr. Borden has well said: —

"It is a law of nature that you reap more than you sow:

Sow a thought, you reap an act;
Sow an act, you reap a habit;
Sow a habit, you reap a character;
Sow a character, you reap a destiny."

David Harum said, "Ev'ry hoss c'n do a thing better 'n' spryer if he's ben broke to it as a colt."

Can all this be accomplished? Yea, verily. The one principal item in this work — the necessary requisite, without which chaos reigns supreme — is good discipline. The term "discipline" is a very expansive one, and covers a multitude of nondescript things,— some good, some bad, some worse. Without discipline our efforts are futile, and the great outlay of money a waste. How to maintain it is indeed a problem. Some schools have a military discipline, plain; others the same, with frills. Some have a parental discipline, simple and kind for the dear public's consumption, but much stronger adjuncts for private use,— rooms for reflection, solitaries; cells plain, cells with shackles, cuffs, screens, or hose; whips, straps, paddles, canes. It is beyond question that all are administered with good intent. Some accomplish the intended good; others, the reverse. No cast-iron rule will apply to every school or to each individual in the school. It is said, "what is one man's meat is another man's poison." My own experience and observation com-

pel me to say that, the least possible punishment of any sort, the better; and I believe that the great majority of industrial school workers agree with me fully in this.

Kindly counsel, patient direction in the right way, stimulating encouragement, rewards of merit,— these are all better than punishment.

Yet — do not misunderstand me — there are cases that come to all, at least they come to me, when sterner measures are necessary. To hesitate then is to strengthen in the mind of the offender the idea of your weakness; for he does not know the first letter in the alphabet of kindness, has never experienced anything with which he can compare it. But later,—just a little later, it may be,— when he has become acquainted with the plans and methods of the school, you may dispense with the punishment. The poet Pope assures us that "Force first made conquest; and conquest, law." Pitiable as is this truth, it yet remains only too true.

Pardon me while I digress enough to say that, in my judgment, when you punish, it is best to use plain so-called corporal punishment, a strap is safest, and humane. I do not believe in confinement of any sort as a punishment. One superintendent writes: — "I have abolished line and cell as methods of punishment, as I am satisfied that any punishment long drawn out fails of its object,— makes the offender sullen and cross." In some states, where corporal punishment is interdicted by law, I have witnessed severe treament inflicted upon inmates, and have been assured by former inmates who had undergone the ordeal that they would prefer daily whippings for a month at least. I am afraid of these secret places of confinement, the public rarely know about them. I do not want them in my school, the danger of abuse in their use is too great.

But enough of this digression. The question constantly before us is, "How may the best discipline be secured and maintained; what is its purpose; does it attain the end sought; is it lasting?"

This leads us to the consideration of the subject of the hour; namely, "Should the Merit and Demerit System be regarded as important by institutions?" We boldly take the affirmative, and answer, "Yes."

As before stated, we do not believe in punishment, so called, of any sort, excepting as a last resort; and we firmly believe in the more gentle and simple methods of encouragement and reward.

Discipline is to reform a boy or girl, not to intimidate them, to develop hope, not despair; and so my contention is that rewards are better than punishments.

In entering upon the discussion of the subject, I am well aware that there are two well-defined opinions regarding it; able men of experience and successful institutions ranged on either side of the question. Objection to any merit system has been urged on the ground that it is unnatural. "Think of a father setting down each night a record of his children's deportment, their good and bad deeds." The family idea will probably answer where there are but few, but with larger numbers too much is left in uncertainty.

Is it not an impossible undertaking for a superintendent to keep in mind the individual virtues and faults of all those under his care? How can he give to his Board of Control or Trustees an intelligent answer as to the advisability of granting a parole or release to any one of his three, five, or eight hundred boys?

He must rely upon others; and they in turn have nothing but their memories to depend upon,— in the best of officers, faulty; in others, nothing short of prejudiced. Confidence in the accuracy and fairness of such a system must be absolute.

In talking with a superintendent who is an ardent supporter of the parental plan, no merits or demerits, he frankly admitted that in his absence, or with a change of superintendents, his board would have no data upon which to base action regarding paroles.

A demerit system is sound in principle because it is true to life. Practically one runs the course of his entire career on the self-same plan. Moral worth and manliness are the factors which give prestige in every-day life; and why should not the same rule apply to inmates of industrial schools? In the business world a person guilty of unprofessional conduct finds the offence charged against him by his neighbors. Repeated offences mean loss of business and farther ostracism. So in the industrial school world the one guilty of misdemeanor finds himself retrograding instead of progressing.

The advantages and lasting effects of a demerit system on a boy are apparent to the careful observer. He himself is not slow to perceive that good conduct is the lever which turns the tide of his fortune, and he grasps it with firmness and determination. Once he begins doing right, he gains the confidence of his superiors, and realizes that he is the sovereign of his career. He becomes self-

reliant and confident of his ability in this direction, and thus is imprinted in his nature the value of a virtuous course. This one advantage is enough to commend it to all thinking persons.

One chief advantage of a demerit system centres on the inmate's knowledge of how soon he can be released on good behavior. This is an important feature. It inspires hope and stimulates endeavor. It gives something to which to look forward, and shows in the most practical way that "one must paddle his own canoe" if he desires to reach freedom's port without being carried back by the whirlwind of his own misdeeds. His early liberation rests solely with himself. Inculcate this thought, and the boy's love of freedom will do the rest.

Recently we noticed that a railroad had adopted the merit and demerit system. For each reprimand or violation of orders, marks are given, which may be removed by days and months of clear record; but accumulated marks will cause suspension or dismissal.

The keeping of records was instituted by the All-wise Father. The Psalmist writes (Ps. lxix. 28), "Let them be blotted out of the book of the living, and not be written with the righteous." Later we find these words: "And the books were opened, and another book was opened, which is the book of life; and the dead were judged out of those things which were written in the books, according to their works."

The daily recording of deeds done or omitted will continue to the end of time, and the final adjustment will be of the utmost importance to each of us.

Conceding that our inmates are unfortunates, not criminals, and that the offences committed by them were simple incidents or accidents of their surroundings and moral condition, we must then place them all in the same moral hospital ward, and begin our treatment, looking forward to perfect moral health as a result.

Under a merit system each becomes the architect of his individual fortune. "As a man soweth, so shall he also reap." Added self-respect comes to the boys and girls who work themselves out on their honor, and go forth on their merit, having earned the right to a parole.

These lines by J. G. Holland are as true in the industrial school as elsewhere: —

> "We build the ladder by which we rise
> From the lowly earth to the vaulted skies;
> And we mount to the summit, round by round."

A word regarding my own school: believing that the badge, or merit, system was the best method for securing the desired end, after careful investigation, and much correspondence, the following was evolved; to a considerable extent it is an adaptation of ideas selected from systems in use in other schools. Briefly, it is as follows: —

Each boy at entrance is given the twelfth badge.

To be entitled to parole, he must pass for the eleventh, tenth, and on up to the first badge, and obtain the first and second honor badges, the latter to be held clear for the entire month.

For each clear day he is entitled to five merits. Demerits are charged against inmates according to schedule.

Commanders call the roll of their company each evening, and record the number of demerits any boy has received during the day.

All officers forward to the superintendent's office within twenty-four hours, on a blank furnished for the purpose, a report of demerits imposed on any inmate by them.

To advance a badge in any month, he must have to his credit, after all demerits are deducted, not less than the following merits, namely: —

Until the sixth badge is obtained, 90 merits will be required each month; from the sixth to the fifth badge, 100 merits; from the fifth to the fourth badge, 110 merits; from the fourth to the third badge, 120 merits; from the third to the second badge, 130 merits; from the second to the first badge, 140 merits; from the first to the first honor, a perfect month; from the first honor to the second honor, a perfect month. For exceptionally good conduct a boy may receive additional merits or be advanced more than one badge in a month. For bad conduct, escaping, withholding information concerning escapes, etc., a boy may receive additional demerits or be reduced one or more badges in a month. At the close of each month the commander brings his daily record book to the superintendent's office, where the grade standing of each boy is determined for the following month.

When all demerits are cancelled and a boy has held his second honor badge clear the entire month, he may be granted a leave of absence by the board of control for four months, provided a suitable home is ready for him. If good conduct and steady habits are maintained, this leave of absence will be renewed for one year or longer, at the pleasure of the board.

You will notice that the last three months must be perfectly clear. Our marks include lessons, deportment, work, untidiness, and all sorts of objectionable conduct. Boys can and do go out on their honor in fourteen months. We teach our boys the value of a community of interest, that each boy is dependent to a degree on those about him; and it is therefore to his interest, in the school as well as out of it, to use all proper means within his power to hinder wrong-doing as well as to assist in its detection.

Great interest is taken by the boys in their rating, and the reading of the badge assignments in the chapel is the event of the month to them. When they receive their tastily designed Roll of Honor cards, with their names written on them, and bearing the signature of the superintendent, showing that they have earned the Roll of Honor privileges, they are proud, and justly so; and so are their parents or friends, to whom they send their cards their next letter day.

One mother wrote her boy that his father (step-father) carried his first Roll of Honor card down town, and, exhibiting it, said, "This shows how well my boy is doing, and I am proud of him."

If a boy fails to send his card home regularly, a letter comes promptly, asking for an explanation. Additional privileges are given Roll of Honor boys. They have a special dining-room, better table service, and extra variety of food. They are also allowed to converse during all meals.

Under this system, with an average population of one hundred and sixty boys (160), the number of corporal punishments has been reduced, until we now frequently have but three or four in a month; and we have no walls, cells, rooms for reflection, or other places of confinement whatever, and our average number of perfect boys on the monthly Roll of Honor is fifty-five.

Not least among the benefits accruing from the adoption of the merit system has been the entire disappearance of the throng of parents and friends who monthly besieged the Board of Control for their boy's parole. Under the present system, when the boy has earned the right to go, we correspond with his people and make investigation as to his home. If it is satisfactory, he is paroled, no one appearing in his behalf excepting the superintendent.

We believe that this is the system for our school, and could not be induced to abandon it, nor would our Board of Control admit of its

abrogation. The boys also have confidence in it, and would not willingly allow it to be abolished.

In conclusion, let me say that this rambling paper to which you have listened so patiently, has only touched the edges of this great subject; for it really embraces each and all departments of industrial school life.

If the little said shall lead to a discussion of the subject by the able and experienced workers present, I shall be satisfied.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND ITS GENERAL TREATMENT.

BY SUPERINTENDENT L. D. DRAKE,

CHAIRMAN REFORMATORY AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL SECTION.

In recounting the progress of the past, with reference to juvenile delinquency, and the many methods furnished for the advancement of the delinquent and dependent youth, one hesitates as he investigates the causes and effects, and concludes that the source of the evil is not being reached. Too often we are influenced by a sentimentality that is far from being helpful, and causes criticism of the motive which prompts its action. The study of the criminal propensities should enter primarily into the work, and a careful and most thorough investigation be made. It is absolutely essential that anthropology should furnish a basis for our study. The cause of degeneracy, whether from hereditary taint or from physical defect, and whether environment has left its imprint upon the young, susceptible life, are questions requiring deliberate and careful consideration. Conclusions are too often reached that are premature. We are not able to scrutinize closely enough to at first estimate correctly, and, unless the cause be understood, the remedy applied may be far from efficacious. The juvenile delinquent is an abnormal being, with faculties impaired and other malformations that produce a handicapped child, who is held responsible by an irrational public, and a strict accountability asked for its every action. No

particular study has been made, nor the causes of such defects as manifest themselves considered. In studying the defective child it is not enough to simply note the deviation from what we should expect in a normal, or rational, child.

There should be a thorough examination of the boy upon his entry into the institution. His history from early childhood, his parentage, his heredity and environment, the causes that led to the first crime committed, should be learned. Then, and then only, can we hope to apply a remedy necessary and effectual in the work of reformation. Failures are often made in consequence of this lack of study. We surround ourselves with incompetent employees, who imagine that boys committed to our institutions are simply to be herded as cattle, no thought of their future life entering into the subject. This, also, is wrong. Lift the institution above the mire of politics, secure master minds to be the instructors of the boys and girls, and carefully observe the result. I venture the opinion, it will be entirely satisfactory.

The paramount idea in some institutions is the employment of its inmates. The question of how much the boy can be made to earn plays a significant part. This, in my opinion, is entirely wrong. I do not wish to be understood as not advocating the necessity of work. I regard it as of great importance. Every child should be taught the nobility of labor, and this influence will enter largely into the reformation sought. I contend that the likes and dislikes of the boy must be known to us. How often do we meet with failure in consequence of not consulting the desires of our boys! In choosing for them an occupation, perfect harmony must exist between all parties concerned, to effect the greatest good. We too often exact more than the boy is capable of performing. This aggravates, and causes an irritability which strengthens an abnormal tendency, and we are assisting to tear down rather than helping to build up. How necessary, then, is the patient, painstaking worker who can conceive of his or her duty toward the defective and delinquent child! Society should recognize its responsibility for the conditions that exist relative to delinquency. What attention is given by the average busy business man to the scenes that occur daily upon our streets? He concludes without investigation. His estimate is made, and another youth is added to a class to be despised. Too many are ready to condemn; but how many, may I ask, are anxious to com-

mend? What can be expected of the street child, having parents, possibly, but in name only? Home? Yes, but entirely without significance. Love! Oh, beautiful word, yet how empty to the average street child!

The progress made by our correctional institutions is marvellous. Great credit should be given them, yet much remains to be done. Society must be aroused and remedies applied to suit existing conditions. Children must be taken from off the streets, compelled to attend school, and given instruction both in book and industrial occupation. If you occupy the mind and the hand, train them to work in harmony and create a desire to do something well, you will then have gone a long way toward improving the defective and correcting the delinquent. Political and commercial questions absorb the best minds of our country, yet the question of criminal sociology rarely ever finds its way into print. There is much to alarm us; and very soon our thinking people must assert the importance of this subject, and take definite action to arrest the cause of crime. The matter in question has already assumed alarming proportions. Why delay longer? The youths of to-day are the men of to-morrow. Should they not be carefully guarded, lest they be engulfed in the whirlpool of ruin? If we find environment to be largely responsible for the delinquency shown, we must try to change the conditions. If heredity has placed its cruel hand upon the offspring, then adjustment can only be had through the adoption of stringent marriage laws. If the degeneracy is physical, remedies may be applied to counteract its baneful influence, and good results may follow.

The school and the shop are influences helpful to correct the physical deficiency. Industrial training schools in every city for our street boy or girl will be an evidence of an awakening to the importance of this subject. Instead of the newsboy or the bootblack, we shall soon have the skilled artisan, contributing to the material wealth of our state. What man is not proud to be known as an independent citizen? Cannot a boy feel as justly proud who is a tradesman instead of being a bootblack or a newsboy? This is certainly possible, if our cities make a careful study of the sociological conditions which exist; and, if corrections are wanted, not to the few belongs the duty involved, but to the public in general. The educational idea can be carried into the village or hamlet,

throughout the rural district, with benefit and success. The day is coming when as a part of the school curriculum will be found the shop, the sewing-room, and the kitchen. Not so much of the classical will be required of our boys, but instead a thorough knowledge of the use of tools, and of our girls a complete understanding of the art of dressmaking and culinary affairs. The power of being able to perform any labor requiring skill adds to the value of our citizenship, which should be of great concern to every commonwealth.

SHALL SUPERINTENDENTS EMPLOY AND DISCHARGE EMPLOYEES?

BY SUPERINTENDENT J. W. BROWN,

OF MINNESOTA TRAINING SCHOOL, RED WING, MINN.

Were this question asked in regard to any corporation or concern, public or private, that had for its object that of getting gain, the answer would unhesitatingly be in the affirmative. To succeed in business enterprises, men have learned that certain business principles must be applied. Why, then, should they be ignored in the management of an institution that has for its object the saving to lives of usefulness those committed to its care?

In the construction of our buildings at Red Wing a few years since, the first work of our board was to secure the services of an architect to prepare plans and specifications for the work, such as could be plainly understood. They next sought a builder whom they believed to be thoroughly informed and reliable to carry out their plans, leaving with him the matter of selecting trained artisans, stonecutters, masons, carpenters, plumbers, etc., to execute the work, with full power to discharge if they proved incompetent, or for any cause undesirable, and to employ others in their stead. The builder was held responsible, and there was no question as to whom he should employ. The same is true in regard to all great building enterprises,

whether it be of house, shop, or railroad. Well-known specialists are employed to take charge of the work, and with them the responsibility rests; and, if they are unequal to the task, others should take their places, and there should be no question of authority, no division of responsibility.

A ship has just been launched, and is to be employed in the carrying of souls and valuable merchandise to distant shores. The owners first seek for a captain, a man who is a skilful navigator and who through long experience in buffeting the waves has become a thorough seaman. He is charged with the responsibility of securing such men as are qualified by experience and knowledge to conduct the ship safely to the destined port; and his authority is absolute, his commands must be implicitly obeyed. He may be held responsible for any abuse of power, but there must be no question of authority. Especially must this principle be observed in the conduct of armies and navies. What would become of discipline if the authority of the commanding officer should for a moment be questioned? We hear a great deal said about a "one-man" power; but I ask, What great things, in war or peace, have been accomplished except by "one-man" power? Our Dewey, of whose achievements in Manila Bay we, as a nation, feel so justly proud, would have been unknown to fame, and the efficiency of the American navy would probably never have been recognized by the nations of the world, but for the "one-man" power so ably and so judiciously exercised.

Some one has justly remarked that "responsibility can never be greater than the authority given," that "one of the most dangerous defects in any scheme of government is a mixed and ill-defined responsibility."

It is hardly reasonable or just to hold the superintendent of a reform school or any institution responsible for the conduct of persons that are not of his own choosing.

It would be entirely proper, and in no way harmful, in order to guard against any possibility of a conflict between the superintendent and the managers, resulting from the employment of persons in any way objectionable to the managers, that all help should be employed subject to the approval of the board. The superintendent should, however, have the power to dismiss without any appeal to the board of managers.

A superintendent of a reform school once wrote to me asking what

I would do if I had a person in the employ of our school who, I was fully satisfied, was working against the management and creating discontent and insubordination on the part of the other officers and the boys. Did I have the power to discharge, etc.? I replied that I had never had occasion to discharge but one man, and at that time the board of managers approved my act; that I should not, under such circumstances as he states, stop to consider the question of power, but would not for a single day retain in the employ of the institution of which I was in charge a person of the character indicated. I should consider it an injustice to myself and positively harmful to the school. If there is a single officer who cannot work in harmony with the superintendent in all that pertains to the best interests of the school, a vacancy should be created at once. To retain such an officer for a month or even for a week would be fruitful of great harm to the school.

Again, the members of the boards of managers of most of our state institutions are, as a rule, more or less actively engaged in party politics; and where they are charged with, and exercise the power of appointments to, the subordinate positions, it is practically impossible for them to be governed at all times by their judgment of what is best for the institution of which they are in control, without injury to themselves politically. And, when appointments are made and vacancies created in any institution for political reasons only, the usefulness of such an institution is at an end.

The founders of the Reformatory in the state of Minnesota foresaw the dangers arising from placing the power of appointing subordinate officers in the hands of the board of managers, and provided against this in the following section: —

> The board of managers shall appoint a general superintendent, and shall have power to remove him for cause, after opportunity shall be given him to be heard upon written charges. All other officers shall be appointed by the superintendent and removable at his pleasure.

While, in the training school of which I am, and have been, in charge for the past fourteen years, the board of managers are under the law designated as the appointing power, our school has been peculiarly fortunate in having for its managers men who have been zealous in all that pertains to its best interest. They have recog-

nized the necessity of the superintendent surrounding himself with help of his own choosing; and he has in all cases made appointments subject to the approval of the board or he has been advised with in regard to such appointments. And, in all cases where the superintendent has been called upon to discharge any person, the only rebuke he has received at the hands of the board was from the fact that such discharge was too long delayed.

The efficiency and harmony of any school or institution depends more upon the character of its managers than upon any printed rules and regulations. If those in control are men of intelligence, and have an earnest desire to benefit the poor unfortunates committed to their care, the question of authority will never be raised, but because of that desire all will work together for the general good.

INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT AS A FACTOR IN THE REFORMATION OF GIRLS.

BY MRS. L. N. DE BOLT,

SUPERINTENDENT STATE INDUSTRIAL HOME FOR GIRLS, CHILLICOTHE, MO.

The question of the discipline and management — or, in plainer terms, the problem how to feed and clothe at the least expense, and the best methods to be adopted in the subduing or controlling — of a certain amount of humanity are matters that have occupied the attention of reform thinkers since the first faint steps in this line of work were taken. In the quarter of a century that marks the life of this national meeting, its records show the discussion and seemingly satisfactory settlement of many vexing questions of discipline and management, only to see the proverbial house of cards tumble about our heads when the attempt is made to apply theories and rules to the rank and file of institutions. We forget that conditions and facilities, perhaps even the class of inmates, vary in different localities even as the leaves of the same tree, no two of which will mark the same pattern; and, furthermore, there were never two

superintendents who could pursue the same detailed line of conduct with an equal degree of success. Any plan to be adapted to general work must be broad enough to embrace all ages, sexes, and conditions; and while my experience in institution work has been with girls only, and my ideas will be from that standpoint, I feel that they will equally apply to delinquent women, men, and boys, with slight modification.

True reformation must recognize no time in its plan but the whole life of that individual, and build, bit by bit, the character that is to develop more or less, as the moral, mental, and physical growth permits, into good citizenship. A reforming schedule that only tides over the two, three, or four years with which we have to do, will be swept away by the first wave of temptation that comes. It can be classed simply as a period of penance which may reform by enforcing sobriety, morality, and the attendant virtues, but more often goes to pieces when free from the sustaining influence of the institution. Unless we can take the poor piece of wreckage that comes to us, and, realizing that beneath all the grime, indifference, and repulsiveness there is somewhere the vital spark lying dormant that must be reached and fanned into the living fire of new life, our efforts are apt to come to naught.

The girls committed to our institution are of all grades of society,— sometimes the victim of heredity, sometimes of environment, but too often as the weed, gutter-washed, the poor, pitiful result of both heredity and environment.

The larger number are very ignorant, with the brutish instincts often predominating and a correspondingly low degree of mental activity. By the time the girl is inducted into the mysteries of system, order, and discipline, the results of personal cleanliness, wholesome food, and regular hours of sleep become apparent in the brighter eye, the quicker step, and the more intelligent look. We know the work of reformation has begun, and we must be wise enough and strong enough to build that life anew.

The constitution that has been more or less a physical wreck through inherited disease, lack of nourishment and healthy surroundings, or by its slimy trail through the slough of dissipation and vice, takes on a healthier tone, and the warm blood of new energetic forces begins to course through the veins. These signs of renewing activity must be recognized, and an outlet provided; for an outlet

they will have,— legitimately if they may, but mischievously if they must.

There must be no idle brain to become his Satanic Majesty's workshop, or we have the consequent insubordination, escapes, and riots. It is not my observation that the average child finds discipline and system irksome and fretting, if administered with firmness and kindliness, and if every waking moment is employed to the full in recreation, study, or work. I think, rather, that they enjoy the being a part of an army that moves systematically in obedience to a higher power; and I believe that, from the time God in the Garden of Eden placed his ban of labor upon the human race, he has endeavored to compensate by planting in every normal breast the desire to be busy with something, to do something, to feel that we are part and parcel of this great scheme of achievement that makes the world hum about us. We may know by our experiences in the private home how restless and unhappy our own little ones become, if unemployed; and these children do not differ materially from ours as they come from the hand of the Great Father. The neglect or abuse of man may have dwarfed, stunted, and twisted them out of childish semblance, but the same characteristics and tendencies, as well as susceptibilities, are there; and the child nature demands activity. Rest should be an exchange of detail work for play, to be succeeded by the busy school; and an unending round should fill the waking day.

By this means the interest is absorbed in whatever occupies the hour. This is not difficult. We have all noted how readily the overgrown girl, unable, perhaps, to write her name, and with absolutely no knowledge of household labor, became the eager student, and took up her detail work with zest, her only anxiety being to attain perfection in the task.

More often than not the fiercest-tempered, the most violent and unmanageable girls are the best students and workers, the ones who exercise the best judgment in work, and are the freest from shirking, and often develop into the trustiest. The very force of character that made them such a power for evil, when trained into proper channels, makes them equally powerful factors for good. The chance of permanent reformation is always greater with these strong natures than with the weaker ones, who are more readily swayed by their surroundings and whose impulses are the more

fleeting. The stronger nature embraces the good opportunities with all the abandonment that it did the evil, and has more foundation for character to build upon.

But do not forget that the temperament constantly craves employment, and the brain must be active and busied in clean lines or it will wander back to the sinful past with all its alluring excitement, which ought to be crowded out and buried under better inclinations, to save the girl from herself.

One of the most successful prison-workers of the age has given as the points to be made in character-building: "ambition, without which no reform is possible; self-respect, which is the keystone of character; self-control, which is character." I would most heartily subscribe to this, but would take the liberty to reverse the order of enumeration. I have found in my work that self-control is the first step, the first desirable thing to be attained, the lever that first swings the whole being into the right way; and with the girl who can practise self-control all things are possible. No one can ever know, perhaps, the battles fought within that savage breast, nor the struggles for supremacy over self. I am always glad to praise the girl who has gained the mastery of herself, for I feel that she has won a proud victory. To this girl self-respect comes as a natural consequence; and a strong character is builded, from which ambition springs to crown the work. This is a critical period. These promptings, new to this erratic soul, must be fed, day by day, to insure steady development and stability. The need demands the creation of some interest that will fix the attention, stimulate the industrial traits, and train the faculties, aside from regular work.

The average girl chafes under too much of the machine, and I fear that we too often fall into the error of working our forces too much upon the "gang" plan. I know this is difficult to avoid in crowded institutions; but I still believe the institution feature should be kept in the background, and by the fostering of little outside interests the regular work will move of itself.

As the chemist studies each separate substance that in combination goes to form the whole body under analysis, so each girl should be studied, her tastes and aptitudes learned, little duties in the line of her likes put in her way, sympathetic discussion of her little desires and plans provided for, and, in short, the resources of her nature probed to the depths. Whatever will appeal to the better

side of her nature, stimulate her pride, develop her interest, and bring out her innate emotions, judgment, and capabilities, she should have opportunities for, with the necessary supervision to insure faithful performance of duty and correct work.

All appearance of suspicion or watching should be avoided, but let the friendly oversight take the form of an earnest wish to teach and aid in bringing ultimate success to her effort. The thought that she is trusted will help to increase her self-respect and make her trustworthy. As a result, time brings with the awakened faculties new possibilities; and ambition, with a dread memory of the furnace-blast that overwhelmed it in days gone by, asks, What of the future? It is a question laden with the gravest responsibilities, for it means a life for weal or woe.

Two, three, or five years of institution life tend to weaken a girl, in one sense of the word. While she is strengthened along moral lines, educated to a greater or less extent, and trained to good habits of industry and manners, she has lost the rougher propensities that gave her a show of courage; and by the very training in obedience and systematic work, in implicit reliance upon the direction and guidance of others, she is made dependent and helpless. As she goes out with the impression of a decenter life enveloping her, and perhaps a strong desire to do well, she sees no visible means to carry out her good resolves, becomes confused and discouraged, drifts back to her old associations and low pleasures, and becomes again a demoralizing element. How often we have seen this, with aching hearts, and wondered just where the trouble was!

But here industrial training demonstrates its value; for, just as far as each girl can be provided with an education or trade that will enable her to earn her living independently and honorably, just about so far can we draw the line of statistics in reformation.

It is true that some have comfortable homes to return to; but even then I have noticed that an idle life is not the safest, and they are apt to do very much better if they have the means for wage-earning in their own hands. In the discussion of a broadened course of training I am contemplating far more than the ordinary domestic work in kitchen, laundry, and sewing-room, as taught in most institutions. These are all right, as far as they go, and ample for a large proportion of our girls; but how crude and incomplete for the large class gifted with minds and brains of diversified tastes

and strong intellectual powers, who demand equipment, day by day, to go forth and fight the battle for bread! It is absurd to suppose each and every girl adapted to these limits or satisfied with such meagre results, after the rousing of the fires of ambition within her.

The fine art lies in finding each girl's capabilities and tastes, training her in these directions, so that, when she leaves, she is armed to do *well* what she inclines to do. She then stands an almost equal chance to achieve good citizenship with her more fortunate sister who has had family and environment, as well as the training of the business world, to aid her.

But do not try to make cooks of your dressmakers or laundresses of your cooks. Give to each the most scientific training possible, but in the trend of her desires, or she will revolt at what is abhorrent to her, and, with no pride in her work, discard it at the first opportunity. We may lose our patience at such fastidiousness; but the fact remains for us to meet, and we cannot control it outside the four walls of the institution.

Occupations for women are circumscribed, even in this century, and institution limitations are many; but I am confident the solution of the permanency of our work lies in our ability to open the avenues for training in more departments and with more completeness. This involves time, study of methods, and broad views. It takes nervous force, patience, unwavering gentleness, woven through and through with never-relaxing discipline, and a vigilance that never sleeps. But there are no rose-strewn paths for the reform worker. The ceaseless grind is a necessity to put courage and strength into these poor hearts; and there is no surer way to teach them that you are their friend than by personal interest in their doings and by giving practical help in building for their future. Some natures are slow to respond, and at times one almost gives up in despair; but I firmly believe there is no nature so depraved, no heart so hardened, but can be reached by friendly interest shown in personal welfare, thoughts, and future success. I have a never-dying faith in the resources of human nature, in the existence of the divine spark.

I have been considering the average inmate, not the many sweet natures who hail the institution as a haven of rest, nor the many, alas! whose lacks make us wonder why the Creator's kindly hand played such a grim jest, but the majority, with all their faults and

needs, who come to us for aid and strength to make a new beginning, and to whom industrial training gives life and hope.

What has been accomplished by its aid in the past we all know, and what the future offers with better facilities and broader visions we can think of with brightening eye and swelling heart.

As the busy life and systematic industrial training become the rule in our institutions, the percentage of saved womanhood that passes out from our doors will increase many-fold, the question of punishments will resolve itself, and violence and riots become unknown.

CO-OPERATION OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

BY E. P. WENTWORTH, PORTLAND, ME.

There are in the United States, according to a recent report of the Commissioner of Education, eighty-eight juvenile reformatories. All these institutions are engaged in the same work. Their superintendents have substantially the same trials to undergo, the same problems to solve, the same great ends to accomplish. Under these conditions it seems a self-evident proposition that superintendents should work together, so far as opportunity is afforded, both for the upbuilding of their respective institutions and for the good of the cause to which they have devoted their lives. Assuming that all will assent to the truth of this proposition, without further preliminary or preface let us attempt to discover in what ways co-operation may become a more potent force in our institution work.

First: co-operation means organization. We are already the members of an important section of a great organization,— the National Conference of Charities and Correction. As a section, we do not perhaps possess all the advantages of a separate and complete organization; but, until the time comes when we can establish and maintain an independent association of our own, ought we not to cordially sustain the National Conference and do all within our

power to advance its interests? I believe so; yet an examination of the Conference report for 1899 (and probably there was an average attendance that year) shows that out of 88 reform schools 71 were not represented at this Conference by their superintendents. Out of 51 states and territories, only 13 states sent their superintendents to this Conference. Brethren, this ought not so to be. Somebody — the Executive Committee of the Conference, the Secretary, the Committee on Reformatories and Industrial Schools, or some other person or committee — should, by personal letters, urge every superintendent to become a member of the National Conference, and every member should use his utmost endeavors so to arrange his business affairs that he may be able to attend the annual sessions. In all cases the expense of attending these meetings should be defrayed by the institution, state, or corporation which receives the benefits to be derived from the increased value of the superintendent's services. I believe that superintendents often remain away from these meetings simply because they feel they cannot afford to attend them at their own expense, and they are too modest to ask their board of managers to provide the necessary funds. If we make these meetings as valuable as we ought to make them, no reformatory institution can afford to be deprived of the benefits which would accrue to it from the attendance of the superintendent and matron; and this fact should be brought to the attention of the boards, not by the superintendent, who may have some delicacy about properly presenting this matter, but by some officer or committee of the Conference. The expense of corresponding with the boards of managers could properly be defrayed by the National Conference. If this suggestion were energetically carried out, I believe the attendance at the meetings would be greatly increased and the benefits of the meetings to those who attend correspondingly increased.

It may not be amiss to suggest here that we can probably achieve greater results for our institutions by cordially doing all we can to advance the interests of the National Conference of Charities and Correction than by ridiculing the Conference on account of its great size and the many interests it represents. If we are loyal to the Conference, zealous in guarding its good name, and energetic in enlarging its membership and promoting its success, I believe its officers and members will cheerfully grant to our section any reasonable request we may make. By building up a strong and successful sec-

tion we shall make the best possible preparation for a future independent organization.

Second: we need a medium of communication. Our number is so small that at first sight it may appear chimerical to think of publishing a monthly paper devoted solely to the interests of reformatory institutions; yet I believe it could be done without financial loss if superintendents would give proper support to the paper, and some one superintendent of literary inclination would give his labor gratuitously as the editor and publisher. The interchange of ideas through the medium of such a paper would be of great value to the institutions. If it be deemed impracticable to publish a reformatory journal of our own, might we not be able to secure a certain amount of space in the *Charities Review* or some other suitable magazine, this space to be in charge of some reform-school superintendent as editor, and to be devoted to contributions from the various superintendents who may have ideas of value which they are willing to impart to their fellow-laborers?

Third: one of the most important duties devolving upon a superintendent is the instruction of his officers in the principles and methods of reform-school management. I fear that too often we neglect this work. Our time is so completely occupied with the many pressing duties of our position that we are tempted to leave our officers too much to their own devices. When a new officer comes to our school, we give him a copy of our by-laws, a few brief words of counsel, and then, perhaps, regardless of his inexperience in institution life and in the management of wayward youth, we put him in a responsible place in charge of his pupils, to speedily learn by sad experience that "the mistakes of his life are many." If we could place in his hands a manual of instruction in the principles underlying our work, and perhaps describing methods employed by our most successful workers, we might save him from many serious errors, thereby benefiting the children under his care and promoting the interests of the institution. In my own institution I have had instructions prepared for some of the most important positions; and, when a new officer is employed in one of these positions, I place these instructions in his hands and request him to carefully read them, and to consult with me regarding any point on which he desires further light. But the instructions I have prepared are brief, fragmentary, incomplete.

Can we not by co-operating with each other prepare a manual adapted to the purpose mentioned? Suppose this section appoint a committee to have the charge of the preparation of such a manual. This committee could make a list of the topics to be treated, and one or more topics could be assigned to each superintendent for his elaboration. Mr. A., for instance, could take up the relations existing between the superintendent and his subordinate officers, and show the necessity of perfect harmony, of loyalty to the institution and its executive head, and of conscientious obedience to the laws of the state, the rules of the school, the wishes of the superintendent, etc. Mr. B. could prepare a chapter upon punishments, explaining the principles involved in the wise administering of correction, and showing by what methods good order and cheerful obedience to lawful authority may be obtained. Mr. C. could tell of the value of labor as a part of reform-school instruction and discipline, and show how boys may be taught to love labor and to obtain from it health and vigor of body and mind, and so on. These, of course, are mere hints as to the contents of such a manual. It should be chiefly a book of *principles*, as these are the same in all reformatory institutions; and officers who thoroughly understand the principles involved, if they have ability, will speedily develop the necessary methods of applying those principles. Such a manual of instruction would tend to make officers think for themselves, and would be of great assistance in qualifying them for their chosen work. The various chapters, too, would furnish subject-matter for discussion at officers' meetings, and could be explained and elaborated by the superintendent. Or it might be used as a text-book for officers' reading circles. It would enable a superintendent to call the attention of an officer in a delicate manner to any neglect or delinquency by simply asking the officer to read section so and so of the manual; and doubtless in other ways such a book would prove of great value.

Fourth: we need a code of ethics. It need not be a written code, the violation of which would bring condign punishment to the offender. The superintendents of reform schools are men of lofty purpose, who are actuated by a sincere desire to do right, and they do not need the restraining influence of rules and regulations, pains and penalties, to keep them from wandering into evil. But superintendents have business and social relations with each other, and

they need to know how to regulate their conduct toward each other so as to observe in spirit as well as in letter the Golden Rule of doing unto others as ye would that they should do unto you. Take, for instance, the matter of employing help. Suppose that I am now in need of a first-class man to fill a certain position. I receive an application from a man employed in another institution, who appears to be just the kind of man I need. Shall I offer him the vacant place? Here is a practical question which doubtless every one of us has been called upon to answer again and again. If we can judge by their actions, superintendents do not always agree as to what the Golden Rule requires in such a case; yet there must be principles involved in such a matter, simple as it may seem, and a due regard for right as well as for expediency should cause us to give these principles careful consideration. The differences of opinion which exist regarding the duty of a superintendent in the case supposed, and the desire for enlightenment on the points involved which some superintendents have manifested, lead me to believe that the matter should be discussed until we can substantially agree upon what the Golden Rule requires in such a case. When such a decision is arrived at, we can, by each adopting it as the guide of our future action, make it a part of our unwritten code.

In the giving of testimonials to officers who leave our employ, we are clearly under moral obligations not to deceive our brother superintendents by any misrepresentations; but to what extent are we called upon to inform them of the undesirable traits of character which we have observed in officers who leave us and seek employment in other institutions? If an officer is discharged from one institution for immoral conduct or for conduct which shows him to be unfit for the care of youth, should other superintendents be informed of his discharge and the reasons therefor? I am told that if an attendant at an insane hospital treats an inmate brutally, and in consequence is discharged, all other insane hospitals in the United States are notified, and the discharged attendant will find himself unable to secure employment. Would such practice among superintendents of reform schools be productive of good or of evil? Probably it would not be desirable for us to adopt precisely this method; but would it not be wise for us to co-operate with each other to a greater extent than we now do for our mutual protection

from unworthy employees, and from the annoyance of having our officers, as soon as they are comfortably installed in a good position in our school, commence a still-hunt for a position elsewhere? If by free discussion we arrive at a correct decision regarding the methods that superintendents should pursue in such matters, we shall advance our own interests and the interests of our institutions; for, though such a decision would have no binding effect in law, a sense of justice and a spirit of co-operation would impel each superintendent to adopt that practice which the consensus of opinion had pronounced the wisest and best. Thus a code of ethics, written upon our hearts, if nowhere else, might save us many an annoyance, and make us at peace one with another.

XI.

Destitute and Neglected Children.

SOME RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN CHILD-SAVING.

BY GALEN A. MERRILL, CHAIRMAN.

The branch of philanthropic work which is applied in behalf of destitute and neglected children is so full of promise and hope in the possibilities of constructive work which it affords that it is attracting to its consideration in recent years the attention it deserves. It has received due consideration in the deliberations of this National Conference of Charities and Correction, and in the several state conferences that have been organized. All that has been undertaken in the development of systems for the care of destitute and neglected children, both by public and private agencies, is being studied with thoroughness, in order that unsuccessful methods may be discontinued, and the application of those that have been found most successful may be extended.

The forces working upon this problem are being re-enforced by specialists trained for the service. The colleges and universities are giving to the cause students who have equipped themselves for the work; and these men and women from the schools have been turning their attention to the institutions and societies operating in this branch of charitable endeavor and calling them to account, not only for the methods employed in dealing with the individuals committed to their care, but also to show what they have accomplished and what they expect to accomplish. The test of value is being applied, and every institution and home-finding society must now give a reason for its existence in the results it is able to produce. The infusion into institutional methods of the spirit of the student is salutary, and the help that is being given by scientific men and

methods is leading to the enforcement of the principles that should govern in such work. Superintendents must be progressive, willing to listen to the best teaching, to concern themselves with the latest developments in their subject, and to seek the counsel of the wisest and share in plans with the most experienced. The failures of institutions and societies organized for the purpose of helping poor children are being pointed out and unflinchingly acknowledged. Many have found that "confession is good for the soul," and have set about reorganizing their institutions, and adjusting them to meet changed conditions resulting from the development of new and better methods.

The placing-out system has received such commendation from the specialists who have been identified with the most progressive work for dependent children, and the results accomplished where it has been best administered so strongly commend it, that, notwithstanding the abuses it may lead to when badly administered, it is considered, at its best, the best system of providing permanently for wholly dependent children.

The development of this system has resulted in changing the functions of many asylums for children. It has done away with "child storage" institutions in communities where the most advanced ideas have been accepted. Such institutions have become places for the accommodation of children whose parents wish to place them in an institution for a short time, until they can take them and care for them again themselves. This is noticeable, more especially in the states in which the State Public School idea, which is characterized by Mr. Folks as "the distinctively American contribution to public systems of child-saving," has been developed at its best. There has been indicated a reasonable and satisfactory division of the field in child-saving work, as between state and voluntary agencies. The willingness to recognize good wherever it is found, and the desire to promote such co-operation between public and private agencies that each shall be permitted to do what it can do best, are becoming apparent.

The powerful and resourceful organization of the state is utilized to intervene in behalf of such children as are beyond the reach of voluntary or individual effort. It is not held to be an undue assumption of power on the part of the state, when, under judicial approval in the discharge of its obligation to innocent children who

need to be protected from deteriorating forces which surround them, and from which they should be removed at any cost,— even the severance of natural ties which bind them to dissolute and incapable parents,— it takes upon itself the responsibility of their continuous guardianship.

The permanent separation of a child from its natural parents is such a grave matter that it should be permitted only when parents cannot be helped or compelled to meet their obligations as parents. Zeal in this direction must be tempered with prudence, and the truth kept in mind that, while extreme moral degeneracy may justify the disintegration of the family, poverty alone is not always a sufficient cause for such action.

There is, undoubtedly, a useful field of work for private institutions whose authority and resources are insufficient to enable them to assume the responsibility of continuous guardianship of children during minority. It is a natural and proper function of such institutions to receive the children of unfortunate parents with the view of returning them to assist, perhaps, in reuniting the family. It is a noble service to aid in the work of rehabilitating a broken home. The conservation of home life is concerning many earnest workers whose attention is turned in the direction of the education of poor parents in the privileges and responsibilities of the parental relationship.

So grave are the dangers attending the care of destitute and neglected children, and so serious may be the results of tampering with their lives, that most progressive workers with children agree that there should be state supervision of all child-caring agencies, both private and public. The state will give full encouragement and protection to voluntary charities, but will exercise its unquestioned right to define their rights and duties in the interests of the children soon to become its citizens. The quality of the work which is being done by the voluntary organizations that are operating throughout the country varies greatly. Those that are doing good work welcome state supervision, and the most progressive men and women among those connected with voluntary organizations bear testimony to its worth in correcting positive evils and as a means of disseminating information for the improvement of the general child-saving service.

One factor which has led to the belief that the state should supervise and regulate all child-placing agencies is the practice of certain

societies of sending children out of their own into other states in large companies and leaving them, without sufficient investigation of the homes in which they are placed and without subsequent supervision.

The fact that many of the children so placed take places in good families that might be occupied by resident children is not the only objection to such importations. In some communities a prejudice against placing out children by any organization has been produced in the minds of the citizens by the unfortunate results following the unwise methods pursued by these non-resident organizations, which has operated unjustly against authorized home agencies in their work of placing out the children properly belonging in the state. Every reason for requiring any state authorities to place their own dependent children in the best homes and to give them efficient supervision will apply with equal force to every other organization desiring to place children in that state.

State governments are now regarding this subject as worthy of legislative action, and many have enacted laws to regulate and control such practices.

The committee has received communications suggesting that information is desired upon the subject of the final results accruing from the placing out of children in families.

Strange as it may seem, such information is most difficult to obtain, even from those agencies which have been at work the longest. All are ready to tell of their methods, their equipment, and the number of children received and placed out; but the question which most interests us all — how the children "turn out" — is one about which we get but little information.

The percentages of success often paraded by child-saving agencies lack reliability, and are mere estimates, which indicate such results as the management hope for and would like to realize rather than the results actually accomplished and determined after the most rigid and careful inquiry by an unbiassed visiting agency.

No more important question can arise in connection with any child-saving agency than the inquiry, Does it succeed? Is it doing a valuable work for the state and contributing helpfully to the improvement of general social conditions? Is it helping and saving children? It is an easy matter for the officers of an institution or a society to report the number of children received into its care and the number placed in homes and the cost of doing this; but it is more difficult

to tell the real results, to report faithfully, truthfully, and fully the actual condition of those it has tried to help, especially when they number hundreds and perhaps thousands. This is not a small task, and can be accomplished only by the most careful and conscientious work, and the expenditure of much time and money. Every child under care must be visited by a person of tact, intelligence, and experience, one capable of seeing and judging conditions accurately. Reports of the first few months or years will not answer. Reliable information of the full-grown men and women is wanted.

The records of the state public schools in the several states that have established them have available the most complete and accurate information of any agencies we have been able to consult. It is by studying the children in their homes that we are able to determine results and ascertain whether or not the placing-out work contributes helpfully to general social conditions. In Minnesota special attention is being given to children past eighteen years of age who have grown up in their homes, in order to determine what kind of men and women they are. Three hundred and eighty-six are now past eighteen years of age, all of whom have been carefully considered individually; and it has been found that 324, or 84 per cent. of them, have done well. Great pains has been taken and much expense incurred to visit these personally, and the information obtained is reliable.

An especially interesting study has been made of 106 of the children who are over seventeen years of age, one or both of whose parents are known to have been of bad character. Personal visits were made in order to gain full information; and it has been found that 88, or 83 per cent. of them, have developed into young people of good character.

Through the visiting agencies now being required and maintained by state authorities charged with the responsibility of the continuous guardianship of children, the demand for information that will stand "under the search-light of careful and disinterested inquiry" will be satisfied; and we indulge the hope that there will erelong be something more interesting to tell about children in foster-homes.

The ultimate results accruing from the work done through long series of years must constitute the ground upon which the merits of any system and all systems are judged. There are most cheering indications that popular and professional zeal are unselfishly enlisted together to secure the best results attainable.

THE STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL IDEA AT ITS BEST.

BY J. B. MONTGOMERY,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE MICHIGAN STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

In 1871, when the "Peninsular State" was scarcely thirty-four years of age, she assumed guardianship over dependent children, between the ages of four and sixteen, who were sound in mind and body. Previous to that time, dependent children were cared for in poorhouses and in sectarian homes or asylums. The former were objectionable, because they permitted the mingling with delinquents of all ages and classes, and were unprovided with facilities for the proper training and education of the young. The latter were inadequate, because they were not able to reach a great many worthy children in the more remote sections of the state; and besides, too, there were those who did not seem to belong to either.

The state is an impartial mother, and reaches out with equal affection to her children, whether they be white or black, bond or free, realizing that her hope and security lie in the intelligence of her people. It would not be good business policy on the part of a great commonwealth to allow an army of waifs to grow up to maturity uneducated and unrestrained; neither would it be Christian. What, then, was to be done?

Three special ideas suggested themselves to the committee having the matter of child dependence under consideration: —

1. Placing them in families direct from the poorhouse.
2. Giving state aid to private charities.
3. "The State School Idea."

The last-named seemed to include all the essential features of the other two, and, being as magnanimous as the state in its intentions and purposes, was unanimously adopted. The idea was original, being without precedent in any country. It provided a place where a child could be trained mentally, morally, and physically, until a suitable family home could be found for him, and it was called the Michigan State Public School. By law this school was made a temporary home for dependent children, where they should be retained only until they

could be placed in family homes. No child was to be admitted to the school until a thorough investigation was made of the facts, in the Probate Court, showing that it had no parents against whom its support could be enforced; but, when once admitted, parental care and rights over said child were transferred to the state. Provision was then made to secure good homes for such children as might become wards of the state, and to watch over them during minority. This responsibility has been placed in the hands of men who are supposed to have some special fitness for the work, and are known as county agents for the State Board of Corrections and Charities. It is the duty of these agents to act in conjunction with the school in the management of its wards, to investigate homes and transfer children upon the request of the superintendent, and to watch over all the wards of the school placed in their respective counties, making a formal report on each at least once a year and as much oftener as the superintendent may require.

Later a law was enacted establishing a state agency by virtue of which the board of control was authorized to appoint one of its officers or employees to act as agent for the State Public School, whose duty it should be to counsel with local agents and form the connecting link between the school and the county agent, and to perform such other duties as might be required of him by the board or superintendent. It is also expected that the state agent will visit and report on all the wards of the school once each year, though, with the multiplicity of special duties which he is called upon to perform, it is impossible to do so. The guardian, too, agrees, upon taking a child, that he will report on its condition whenever so requested by the school. As a result, nearly every child is heard from at least three times a year, — once each from guardian, state, and county agent. Children old enough are encouraged to correspond with the state agent and superintendent; and many a turbulent boy has been quieted by a letter from the school, appealing to his manhood.

From the establishment of the institution until the present the policy of the board has been to perfect the system; and from time to time they have been instrumental in the enactment of laws which have materially increased the usefulness of the "idea" so wisely planned.

It has been the good fortune of the cause to have as its principal mover one whose highest ambition has been the welfare of the

dependent child, one in whom were combined the heart of a philanthropist and the mind of a scholar. To him is credit due for the laws governing child dependence in Michigan since and including the establishment of the State Public School.

The bill for the care and protection of dependent children was introduced by Hon. C. D. Randall, its author, in the Michigan Senate, and signed by Governor Baldwin, April 17, 1871. Thus was taken the first step in the improvement of Michigan's coming citizenship; and it is safe to say that this initiatory step in the then untrodden path of her socialistic reform has never been regretted.

Year by year the state has been the rewarded witness of greater and still greater progress in her plan of child education and protection. The experience of the Michigan system of child protection has been the blessed means of teaching, not only herself, but sister states and nations as well, some of the grandest lessons in socialistic reform on record. In many states the Michigan "idea" has been adopted in whole or in part, and put to a successful test. Among these may be mentioned Wisconsin, Rhode Island, Kansas, Colorado, and Minnesota. The State Public School of Minnesota is said to be a modernized Michigan State Public School, and its superintendent a full-fledged Michigander quite up to the standard. Michigan naturally feels proud of this young and prosperous institution, and from time to time asks for reports of her proceedings in order to keep pace with her progress. In answer to a few questions submitted to Superintendent Merrill a short time ago, relative to child-saving, he says: —

First. Child dependence is not increasing, but decreasing in Minnesota, notwithstanding the increase in population.

Second. Our number on hand is now decreasing.

Third. We are receiving all admissible children.

Fourth. Some of the noticeable results of our system in Minnesota are: the decrease in child dependence, while the population increases; more careful and thoughtful work by all private and sectarian organizations caring for children; absence of all children of sound mind from the poorhouses; and a general respect and thoughtfulness for the rights of dependent children by the citizens generally.

The Michigan State Public School has now arrived at that interesting period in her history when each day brings forth the tidings

of some one of her children who has arrived at manhood or womanhood, and waits *the order of release*, that he or she may go out earnestly into the world to earn an honest livelihood.

With the success of nearly a score and a half of years it will be interesting to note that 4,790 have been received, 1,280 are in homes on indenture, 148 are in the institution, 600 have been returned to counties, 164 dead, 475 adopted, 296 have become of age, 144 married, 308 restored to parents, and 1,375 declared self-supporting. Of those declared self-supporting, 670 are farmers, 420 doing housework, 65 day laborers, 47 working in shops or factories, and the remainder scattered about in the various vocations, from the servant to the opera singer.

Not only has the practical application of the "State Public School Idea" done all that its promoters had claimed for it, but it has cared for all dependent children admissible under the law, and has been a powerful factor in decreasing child dependence in the state, as will be clearly shown in the following extract from a paper written by Hon. C. D. Randall for the Paris Exposition.

Decrease of Child Dependence in Michigan.

"The State Public School has caused a very remarkable decrease of child dependence in Michigan. When the school was opened in 1874, the population of the state was 1,334,031. From official reports there were then in the county poorhouses supported by the counties 600 children under sixteen years of age. The per capita expense was $75 to $100. The last census, that of 1894, showed a population of 2,241,641. If the increase since then has been as in the twenty years named, the population now is somewhat over 2,500,000. The number of children now in the school averages about 160, and has been about that for some years, and for a long time under 200. There may be a few admissible children in the county poorhouses; but, as the law prohibits the retention of admissible children there, there may be none unless under six months old, they not being admitted. Children on indenture are wards of the school until they are twenty-one years of age, and yet the number occasionally returned to the school does not increase the average attendance. If it is assumed there may be 40 dependent, admissible children in the counties, there would then be only 200 dependent children of sound mind and body supported by the public.

"The above figures show that in 1874 there was in this state 1 dependent child to each 2,224 of the population, and that twenty-six

years after, in 1900, there is only 1 dependent child to 12,500 of the population.

"In this twenty-six years the population of the State has increased 87 per cent., while child dependence has decreased in ratio to the population 400 per cent."

In decreasing child dependence in Michigan, it has also decreased the expense to the state, as the following figures will show: —

The total current expense of the State Public School for twenty-six years is $910,000, to which may be added $84,000 for state and county agency; and we have $994,000, the amount expended by the state in twenty-six years for the care of nearly 5,000 children, an average number of 192 a year for twenty-six years for $198.80 each, or $7.65 per capita annually. This means that the state for the small sum of $198.80 has taken a babe at six months old, and carried it through to manhood or womanhood; and statistics show that about 600 only, or 12 per cent., of the children thus cared for by the State Public School, have been returned to their counties for various causes, and but 2 have landed in state prison; that 88 per cent. are either wards of the school to-day or have been declared self-supporting. Twenty-six years ago the number of children supported in the poorhouses of the state was 600. If we assume that child dependence under the old régime would increase directly as the population of the state increased, we would have to-day 1,124 poor children supported by the state, an average of 862 per annum for twenty-six years. According to the last report of the State Board of Corrections and Charities it cost $2.18 a week, or a little more than $100 a year, to support a pauper in the poorhouse. At this rate it would cost the state to support 862 in poorhouses for twenty-six years $2,241,200, or $1,247,200 more than it has cost the state under the present system. It is an open secret that many of our children come to us from places of bad repute, and carry within their veins the evils as well as the blessings of heredity, and that they need the restraining hand of authority as well as the advice and direction of Christian charity, in order to secure for them and their posterity the chiefest among temporal blessings,— the blessings of liberty. Had they been reared in the poorhouses, under the best care such homes are able to provide, it is fair to presume that 50 per cent. of the 1,375 children now saved to Michigan through the medium of the State Public School would be

supplying the ranks of paupers and criminals at an average expense to the state of $215 each a year, or $148,920 annually; and, if each child saved may be estimated worth $1,000, each child lost is a loss of $1,000, and 688 lost to the state would be a total loss of $688,000, which, added to their expense, would amount to $836,920, which, again, added to the cost of supporting 862 a year for twenty-six years, would make the grand total expense to the state $3,078,120 as compared with $994,000,— the total amount expended by the State Public School to date.

Time will not permit a further enlargement of this particular phase of my subject; and it would be impossible to estimate in dollars and cents the value that grand institution has been to the state of Michigan.

Thus have I commented briefly on a system, the outgrowth of an idea, which was inaugurated without a precedent in history, and which is to-day one of the vital organs in Michigan's body politic.

We believe that the "State Public School Idea" was never more bountiful with blessings in Michigan than to-day; but modesty forbids comparison with the ideas of charity developed in other states, preferring rather to wait the judgment of Him who rules the destinies of states and nations, having full confidence that, when each state shall be called upon to render an account of her stewardship, and the gold from the mines, the wheat from the fields and the cattle from the hills shall have been counted, measured, and valued, that state shall have rendered the most valued account to the treasury of the Infinite which shall have done "what she could" for the salvation of her people.

As Michigan stands to-day, crowned with a halo of waters, her bosom rich with gold, copper, and iron, her institutions of learning and of charity renowned for their excellence, her right hand uplifted pledging fidelity to her sacred trust, may the words of her mouth and the meditation of her heart be acceptable unto Him who said, "Suffer little children to come unto me, and forbid them not; for of such is the kingdom of heaven."

HOME-PLACING.

BY W. T. GARDNER,

SUPERINTENDENT OF BOYS' AND GIRLS' AID SOCIETY, PORTLAND, ORE.

While it is doubtless much better to place homeless, dependent, so-called incorrigible, or criminally inclined children in independent homes, rather than to institutionalize them, yet those who have had any extended experience in so placing them must admit not only the great difficulty in doing so satisfactorily, but, if they have the result of their labors constantly in view, as they should, will then feel a deep, and at times an almost overwhelming sense of their responsibility. And it is difficult to imagine that this sense of responsibility can be too great; for the future life of every child will depend more upon its early environment than upon any other circumstance.

There must be ever kept in mind the object desired; viz., the all-round development of the child, physically, mentally and morally, with a view to the making of a permanently good citizen. In order to do this most effectually, practical common sense is of great importance. No mere theory will prove sufficient. Not only the desirable, but also the possible, must receive due consideration. This will necessitate due regard being had to the financial aspect of the question.

Children remaining under the guardianship of any home-finding society or agency may be classed as: —

1. Those of school age, placed in homes where the regular attendance at school of the child placed is one of the conditions insisted upon.

2. Those where wages for their services are stipulated for.

3. Those placed on trial with a view to ultimate adoption if found satisfactory.

In each of these classes the most thorough investigation possible should be made as to the pecuniary ability, social standing, and moral character of the applicant for a child. Never should a child be placed hastily; for it is desirable that a child should, whenever possible, be kept in one home, and not be subjected to change, since nothing is more calculated than constant change to destroy

that stability of character so necessary to a useful and successful career.

The officers of the society should bear in mind that they are, so to speak, the only parents these children have; and they should act with the same circumspection and thoroughness as though these children were in very fact their own. Not only should references be required and closely scrutinized, but independent inquiries should always be made, and the applicants should be visited in their homes, whenever possible, before the child is placed. It will, however, frequently be found impossible, owing to distance and expense, for the officers of the society to make such personal visits to the proposed home; and, therefore, it will be found advisable to have in as many localities as possible local (unpaid) agents, or, still better, local visiting boards. In the formation of such boards, great care should be exercised, and it should be seen to that the members thereof should be chosen from different religious denominations. This will facilitate the placing of children under the same religious influences (where there have been any) with which their childhood began,— a by no means unimportant matter. An ideal local board would consist of a physician, a lawyer, a merchant, and two women of well-known benevolence. Such members should be appointed by the superintendent or some authorized agent of the society.

Every society or child-placing institution should have a visitor on the road all the time, a person of sympathetic nature, but also of good judgment and sound, practical common sense, with a thorough knowledge of human nature, quick to see and act,— fearless, firm, and cool. Such visitor will make note of persons he may deem desirable for appointment on local boards, with his reasons for so thinking. He will report to the superintendent the results of his visits to the homes of applicants for children, and also all matters coming under his observation, or the result of his inquiry, concerning the wards of the society already placed. Each child placed by the society should be visited twice a year, or even oftener; but under no circumstances should they be visited less than once a year.

Necessarily, these visitations will prove quite expensive for the society, and will, to the unexperienced, seem hardly necessary when they have received no complaint and have not found out anything that has occurred to lead them to believe that the children are badly treated or dissatisfied. It will be found extremely difficult to make

directors or managers of newly formed organizations see the dire need of this visitation. The expense involved in such an undertaking is usually so great that it often deters these new organizations from undertaking it, until absolutely forced upon them by circumstances. But too much stress cannot be laid upon the importance of this branch of our work; and experience teaches us that it is an absolute necessity, if our work is to be made permanently successful.

When we consider that there are very many people who apply for children with the sole view of obtaining cheap labor, while some will even try to obtain girls for the purpose of prostitution; when we know that others will ask for children of school age to be sent to localities where there are hardly any school facilities, while some will even promise wages without having any real intention of ever paying them; and when we still further remember that many others, with excellent intentions, make application for children without possessing any of the qualities required in their management, and even without knowing what constitutes a good home; when we remember that there are those who make a good impression on first acquaintance and who yet are found to treat children placed in their charge with the greatest indifference and even with severity, amounting to cruelty — when we consider all these things, the absolute necessity of competent and thorough visitation becomes more than evident. In fact, it may be said that the placing of the child (except in cases of final adoption) is but the first and by no means most important step in our work. The most important thing regarding the first two classes of children mentioned is to see that these children are maintained and properly treated in suitable homes. This can only be accomplished by competent visitation. In the first class it must be seen that the child continues to receive proper education; in the second class, that it receives its wages promptly according to contract, and that the expenditure of such wages is properly supervised; in both classes that the children are kindly treated, not overworked, and that their moral and religious instruction is not neglected.

While the responsibility in placing children of these first two classes is very great, indeed, yet the greatest responsibility of all is incurred in placing children with a view to permanent adoption. For it must be remembered that, once the child legally adopted, the society has no more right over it than it has over the children of any parents whatsoever, the foster-parents becoming, for all legal and

practical purposes, real parents. And it would in most cases be to the injury of the adopted child's interest, as well as tending to limit the possible power of the society in finding the best foster-parents, should the society attempt to keep track of children after legal adoption.

Bearing these things in mind, it becomes evident that in no case should a child be given up for adoption until after it has been placed in charge of its would-be foster-parents for a period of at least three months, and that in most cases a period of twelve months is very much to be preferred. During this period of probation, frequent visitation to foster-parents' home should be made. We do not mean to infer that *ideal* homes can be obtained in the majority of cases; and, of course, it will be necessary that both the parentage, and the physical, mental and moral peculiarities of the child, be taken into consideration. But we do most strenuously insist that a child should never be placed in anything less than an average good American home. Nor will it be any easy task to attain this.

As we continue our investigation, the importance of the office of visitor becomes more and more apparent. But we must not forget that, after all possible care has been exercised in endeavoring to obtain the right person for this office, the society may have been deceived. The visitor may lack in any or in almost all the necessary qualifications. Therefore, it is important that the superintendent should himself be fully conversant with the particulars of each case, should understand the various advantages, disadvantages, and general peculiarities of the several localities within his jurisdiction, and that he should frequently check and verify the work and reports of the visitor. To this end there should be kept in the central office a full record of each case, and of everything occurring in connection therewith, under the auspices of the society. The superintendent should also, from time to time, visit the various sections within his jurisdiction, carefully comparing the results of his observations with the reports of the visitor.

It also must be borne in mind that it by no means follows that the superintendent will be a suitable person; and it therefore becomes necessary that the members of the central board of control should possess as thorough knowledge as possible of all the conditions prevailing within the various sections of the society's jurisdiction. It is not sufficient that such members should merely possess philan-

thropic and sympathetic natures; they should also have good business ability, keen powers of observation, thorough knowledge of human nature, and, indeed, all the qualities required in the visitor. These are the voluntary and disinterested workers; and, as a whole, they constitute the supreme power in the society. It is most essential that they should possess all the requisites for the formation of sound and just judgment. It is necessary that this board of directors should be ever vigilant, keeping a check upon the operations of the society and the conduct of its officers. Responsibility must be distributed, and should never be left unchecked in the hands of any one or of any few.

From the foregoing it becomes evident that the jurisdiction of each society should be as much limited as possible, so far as the territory of its operations is concerned,— because, first, the proper check upon its visitor from the central office cannot otherwise be had; and, second, because otherwise it will be impossible to have a board of directors possessing all the knowledge and power of personal supervision necessary to obtaining the best results. A due regard to economical administration will also demand this.

The necessity of properly checked visitation will demonstrate the advisability of never allowing the wards of the society to be removed outside the limits of its jurisdiction and the practical personal supervision of its visitors and other officers. But cases will arise, though we think exceptional, where it is advisable and almost necessary that the child should be removed to a great distance from its early surroundings. In these cases we recommend the transference of the child to a kindred society in some other place; but in such cases no care should be spared in ascertaining the standing and practical workings of such kindred society, for the responsibility of such transference is of the nature of the surrendering of the child for final adoption. In cases of such transference a copy of the record of the case should be forwarded to the receiving society. To this end it might be well that each society should have several distant correspondents, after the manner adopted by our banks.

The time-limit forbids my entering upon many of the other interesting features of this subject. But it seems necessary to call attention to the great importance of placing the right child in the right home,— the round peg in the round hole, and the square peg in the

square hole. There is almost every difference, not only in children, but in homes; and certain homes will be suitable for certain children that would be most unsuitable for others. It is necessary, therefore, that, as far as possible, the character both of the home and of the child should be ascertained before any attempt at bringing the two together be had. For this purpose I think it best, in most cases, that the child should be kept for a period, varying according to the exigencies of the case, from one to six months in the society's receiving depot under the observation of a trained officer, in order that its peculiarities may be ascertained.

In conclusion, I would say that there are five rules which should be strenuously adhered to: —

1. To keep the families together, if possible.

2. When the child is taken, to make its acquaintance before placing it.

3. To exercise the greatest care possible in selecting suitable homes.

4. Never to relax your vigilance over a child when once placed (except, of course, in the case of final adoption), no matter how confident you may be that the people with whom the child has been placed will do their duty.

5. And, so far as possible, to look upon all the children coming under your care as though they were your own.

THE PLACE OF THE KINDERGARTEN IN CHILD-SAVING.

BY EVA HARDING, M.D., TOPEKA, KAN.

Perhaps in no field of sociological effort has more intelligent and corrective progress been made, in recent years, than in the treatment of children and the recognition of prenatal influences, which have only recently been regarded as of importance. There has been a constant advance in the recognition of that period in the lives of children when they should become objects of educative and considerate direction. It may be said that, until recently all children were waifs in infancy, so little were their expanding natures understood and cared for along moral and intellectual lines. Held to a rigid accountability in religious matters, they received a spiritual food which they were unable to extract from its husk. Taught to respect rather than love their parents, love being at best but a duty, their little hungry hearts were denied the ministrations of that helpful companionship which their tender and impressionable natures crave. The stern maxim, "Spare the rod, and spoil the child," was considered the correct rule by which to "train" children, and the significance of the poet's declaration that "the child is father of the man" was little understood or appreciated. Now we are beginning to realize what responsive capabilities lie in the tender years of infancy if touched by the inviting hand of sympathetic love and led in sweet and tender guidance.

The greatest advance, however, has been made in the way of caring for the waifs of humanity, in plucking little children from the environments of vicious and hopeless situations and bestowing upon them the refining and directing care of the kindergarten. We are growing up to an appreciation of the fact that the early years of life control and shape the entire future. There is a recognition of the necessity for straightening the twig lest all efforts fail to remedy the slant in the tree. To quote Victor Hugo, "Every case of vagabondage has its root in a neglected child."

Childhood is the vantage-ground for those who would battle against the influences of poverty, disease, and crime in the world.

It has been well said, in effect, that one who circumnavigates the globe is less influenced by all the nations he sees than by the impressions created in infancy by his nurse.

It is hopeless to attempt reformation of the matured life, when there is nothing in the whole history of the individual to work on. The tender memories of youth may be renewed and strengthened and made useful in reclaiming one who has erred in after years; but that life without a tender recollection, that soul seared by contact with vicious environments in infancy, has nothing to which it may be recalled.

The kindergarten has been rightly termed the paradise of childhood. It is fairyland to the little beings. All the new, bright inventions intended to stimulate a child's powers of observation and teach him the use of his hands are found there. It makes them good, happy, useful, and helpful. It is the one place where children can play, sing, sport, and be perfectly happy under watchful care. It is here we find the educating together of the head, heart, and hand.

The kindergarten is the best agency known of for the setting in motion of the physical, mental, and moral machinery of the little child. The gifts and occupations represent every kind of technical activity. It trains the hand and the eye. They learn through doing. It develops patience, perseverance, skill, and will-power. It keeps the body pliable and obedient. Bodily vigor, mental activity, and moral integrity are indispensable to a perfected life. All these are cherished and developed in the kindergarten.

The pliable period of early childhood is the time most favorable to the eradication of vicious tendencies and to the development of latent possibilities for good. Froebel's system of infant training seems peculiarly fitted to overcome the influences of inherited vicious propensities and physical infirmities. Through its influences the child is ever led to larger and truer views of life.

At the very early age of three or four years a child can acquire habits of mental laziness and become habituated to superficial thoughts and idle vagaries, as well as other habits that will influence his whole life.

The public schools are open to the child; but, as he does not enter them before he is six or seven years old, he has then lost two or three years that mean more for his weal or woe than any other like period

of his life. The individual can by his own exertions obtain a higher education if it is denied him by the state. But never can he or any one else make up for the training denied him before regular school age. Therefore, it is the plain duty of the state to provide the child, at as early an age as the child can be taken from its mother, with the training the kindergarten supplies. The officer connected with the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children stated to our normal instructor that he was making a thorough investigation of the poliec court cases, with the satisfactory result that, so far, he had failed to find one who had attended the kindergarten.

Its methods are natural, and its results magnificent. I quote from the fifteenth annual report, 1894, of the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association: "Think of an army of 16,242 children from our tenements and gutters who have been given in these schools their first ideas of truth, honesty, and good will to their fellows. And what a record this is: not one of these sixteen thousand convicted in any police court of a criminal offence! Also, the testimony given by Miss Agness M. Manning, principal of the Webster Public School. She says that before the days of kindergartens her pupils from the Barbary Coast swore, fought, stole, and acted like the young savages that they were. Their training had been the precocious street education in vice. Now, since the establishment of the kindergartens, every year sees an improvement in the character of the new pupils. They have been taught the cardinal virtues. They are, to quote her words, "clean, self-respecting, eager for knowledge. It is a rare thing now to find a child that does not know it is wrong to steal. If you meet one, you may be sure he has never been in a kindergarten."

When our Tennessee kindergarten was started, six or seven women from the Central Church were on hand, besides the teachers; and it took the combined efforts of them all to secure any semblance of an orderly procedure in the hall, swarming with children. It seemed almost as if there ought to be one woman for each child; but in a few weeks order grew out of chaos, as the children began to learn what was expected of them. Every year since has been easier, because of the presence in the school of a large number who have been there before. Other signs of improvement are noticeable. At first it was necessary for the teachers to keep on hand a good supply of soap and water and wash numbers of the children, the first thing they did with

them. They also kept a number of neat little aprons to slip on the children to cover their dirty clothes. The little ones often cried, and rebelled when the time came for them to take off their aprons and go home; for they liked them, and wanted to keep them. Now it is different. The children, almost without exception, come clean and neat and nicely dressed.

There are scarcely any children in Tennesseetown of kindergarten age who are not enrolled in the kindergarten.

No one can estimate the good, both direct and indirect, that has come from the efforts of the kindergartners, who have devoted themselves, heart and soul, to their work.

All the great educators, from Plato to Froebel, tell us that the child's first instruction is the most vitally important, that the whole character is dependent upon it, so that no subsequent care can make amends for wrong beginnings. If this be true, free intermediate schools should be supplemented by free kindergartens. It is surely stupid, to say the least, to devote the whole attention to the superstructure, and give no thought to the foundation. The great work of winning the world to good will only be completely accomplished when the world is taken in its childhood, and kept always in that fearless unconsciousness of evil which has been described as "rest in God." Every agency of which human effort has control should be turned to the unremitting rescue of the children who are in the clutch of evil influences, and to the preservation and elevation unto a maturity of strength and beauty of those who have the right to demand this much at our hands.

XII.

Organization of Charity.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

BY C. S. GROUT, CHAIRMAN, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

Your committee, appointed by the last Conference at Cincinnati, sent letters to 110 societies, in cities with a population of not more than 200,000. Out of that number 69 have replied.

The first question asked after that of location, name, date of organization, population of city, etc., was, "What conditions led to the formation of your society?" 32 replied that duplicate and indiscriminate relief compelled organization. 11 gave begging as a chief cause. There were twenty-seven different reasons, besides those mentioned, for attempting to unify charity work with a hope of better results in caring for the poor. One organization was brought about through the influence of a pastors' union.

The next question was, "How do you disseminate your views and principles?" 48 replied, "Through the press"; 42, "Through reports and the press"; 40, "By public meetings, lectures, etc."

There was but one society which was making a special effort to train agents and secretaries for positions in newly organized societies, and so spreading the gospel of organized charities to other cities. This has no reference to the New York society, which is conducting an excellent six weeks' midsummer course for those who wish to take advanced work.

The number of paid workers reported by these societies was 171. Of this number 60 were men and 111 were women. The number of friendly visitors, unpaid workers, etc., was 1,499, all but 197 being women.

A question of interest to many people was that of savings and industrial work. 40 societies reported having savings departments

of some kind, and were encouraged with the good that seemed to result to the poor and the working classes. Four were engaged in the cultivation of vacant lots. Others have laundries, industrial schools, kindergartens, etc. A thought suggested in this connection is that the least that is said about "charity" in these organizations, the better.

Co-operation was considered to be a most important factor in this organized effort. The inquiry here was for the purpose of ascertaining the conditions of co-operation with individuals, churches, and institutions. There were 26 who reported it as satisfactory. It is noticed that, where co-operation was good with individuals, it followed that a like condition was found among the churches and institutions. Only one or two societies seem to be entirely satisfied with what they have accomplished in this direction.

"What improvements in your methods do you think most desirable?" was one of the questions. There were about twenty-four replies; and, while the thoughts were varied, nearly all carried with them the suggestion that there was need of more training for the work and a greater efficiency on the part of paid workers. One person suggested that there ought to be some means of preceding the professional beggar with a report to the town where he contemplated moving.

"What conditions found among dependent families do you find most difficult to improve?" 38 replied, "Drunkenness"; 22, that the shiftless, lazy parent was a difficult problem to solve. There were 23 other replies, each suggesting a difficulty peculiar to its particular location.

There has been some growth in this movement during the past year. 8 new societies have been organized, 2 have died, and 1 has changed its name and methods of work.

The last question was, "What, in your opinion, are the chief causes of success or failure in the organized work?" To this 25 replied as to what they considered the reason of success, and 33 as to the cause of failure. 1 thought that there was neither success nor failure in the organized work, but that small cities may have an advantage in not having to pay as much to officials and in requiring less "red tape." Nearly all were united as to the importance of close co-operation, thorough investigation, a careful registration, and faithful friendly visitors. The principal

causes for failure given were rivalry and jealousy, and a lack of funds with which to employ a sufficient number of trained, capable assistants.

Returning to reconsider the replies to our questions, we find that the conditions leading to organization are the result of duplication of relief and a careless method of dealing with the poor. The cost of maintaining an army of dependent people in idleness reaches the pockets of those who have means, the increasing demand arrests their attention, and they set in motion a more humane and rational method of dealing with the unfortunate. Saving money is an important factor, but saving people is greater.

This organized work has added strength and character to the weak and helpless, and developed a more satisfactory relation between the rich and poor.

Placing our work before the public is an important matter: in most cities there are very few people who have a clear conception of its meaning. The press and pamphlets have been the leading agencies used. Many societies fail to bring before the people the true condition of families with whom they have to deal. It is as important to report the conditions of our applicants to the person who refers them to the society as it is to investigate the applicant, and this without delay. This places a society in a right relation to the public, restores confidence, and advertises our work favorably, as nothing else can. Whenever the work is explained to a citizen not fully informed, much is done toward bringing your society into favorable light.

Co-operation, as has been seen, is considered a very important and necessary element in organized charities. Very few of the societies seem to be entirely pleased with what they have attained in that direction; but many were encouraged by the success of the past, and were looking hopefully forward to a more satisfactory condition. The name, "Charity Organization Society" or "Associated Charities," carries with it the idea of organization.

All societies are not based purely upon charity organization principles: some are merely relief societies. This is because the public does not understand what the work means and what it can do, if rightly managed, and hence fails to give it proper support. Public opinion is all-powerful; and, when it learns the advantage of all charitable societies co-operating in teaching self-help to our poor, it will support and encourage the movement. And it is as important to

co-operate with the public schools, churches, public charities, and officials as with benevolent associations.

In one of our cities is a magnificent church, with a magnificent people, a magnificent purse, and a magnificent helpless family. This family has for five years received $10 per month from the church for rent. The church people fear to insist on the proper training for the young in that family, and no one knows better than the church that the education of the children in this household is not what they would encourage in their own homes. Yet, for fear the church would be criticised, and it would be said that "——— Church does not care for its poor," it has gone directly against its own judgment, it has given the family a false idea of life, it has taught the children of the family that the church is only for the relief of "mamma." I think Jesus would say to that woman, "Arise, and walk." I do not know what he would say to the church. An organized charity society is a strength and help to churches, if they will make use of it.

Public officials are assisted by this kind of an organization, and many times it renders valuable aid in dealing with their poor, as it stands before the public free from denominational, political, and racial influences. Judges in our police and criminal courts know little, save the criminal record, of those brought before them.

Again, organized charity has been a great help to the public schools where they have been successful in working together. In 1894 one of the small societies in this country discovered a great lack of intelligent attention paid to the poor and truant children of the city by the teachers. The plan had been to clothe and even feed these distressed little creatures without a thought of the care and attention they received in their homes. When the suggestion was made to the teachers of the city that the Charity Organization Society could aid them in their work, they refused to entertain the suggestion because of "red tape." Gradually, the spirit and aim of the society became known; and within a year the families who were accustomed to move from one district to another for support were detected, and the practice stopped. As a result of the same effort, a citizens' educational society was formed, which has done much toward improving the entire school system. Again, a truancy law was passed as a result of the same combined forces. "In union there is strength."

Some of our societies have shown excellent progress; and on close examination we find that they have invariably been managed by an

executive committee, composed of representatives of the best business and religious interests of the place, and have demanded a high standard of efficiency and ability of their paid workers. Without efficient paid workers the charitable thought of a city cannot be trained, intelligent friendly visitors cannot be educated, churches, social orders, and public officials cannot be aided in their work with the poor.

Many of our societies have at some time in their history depended on voluntary workers, but this proved disastrous: either they died in infancy or the society has discovered its mistake and changed its methods in time to save it.

There are many societies in small cities which cannot pay large salaries; but a compensation, however small, should be paid, to bind the obligation and to make it possible to concentrate responsibility. It has been found that most people will support an intelligent charity worker more readily than they will a mere relief society; for, as one has said, "a charity that does not pay will not stay."

In one of our cities, with a population of 60,000, a society was organized about two years ago. Previous to that the Woman's Relief Association had done the charity work, and was given $1,000 by the city; and about the same amount was raised by subscriptions. A few days ago the secretary told me that this year the society had raised $2,000 without the aid of the city. The public sees a decided difference for the better between the old and the new charity.

In the methods of work of the various societies there seems to be but little difference. They assume to base all action on investigation and registration. The result, however, has been valuable only as intelligence and faithfulness have been applied to the work. Investigation does not mean the same to all persons. We often hear people say, "I know this is a worthy family, because I have investigated it," meaning that they have seen the people in their homes, when really all they actually know is that they live at a certain number in a certain street.

Esteemed citizens will often advocate the claim of a worthless beggar. They espouse his cause, while many times they may utterly fail to see the human relationship between themselves and their employees; or, in other words, they can find virtue in a beggar when they cannot see it in the struggling humanity about them. Here is where the importance of registration is to be seen. Investigation is to ascertain present conditions; registration, to show the history of the past.

I offer some suggestions as to our organization work and the conditions of society which it has to meet. It was seen in the résumé of our report that the drunkard, the shiftless, and their families were the most difficult problems with which we have to deal. No rule can be applied to all cases; every new condition is a problem in itself, and must be dealt with as such.

Many laws have been passed for the purpose of punishment or reformation. Charity organization has tried many schemes and plans, and so far its greatest success has been in saving the children. In some states, laws have been passed taking children from vicious and immoral parents. Begging by children of families where the parents will not work has been stopped in many places. Wives and mothers sometimes fear their husbands, and cling to them, sacrificing children, home, and everything. Some day our laws will be made better and be better enforced. Then we may hope for better results in dealing with this perplexing problem.

We have a good-sized population vacillating between workhouse, police court, and the street, a population fed and clothed by society, and an enemy to all good. We should stop and ask ourselves, What can be done? We generally come to the conclusion that about all they are good for is to vote. Society has a condition here to meet.

It is true that, as one casts his eye over the field of social activity, it seems difficult to find a place for another enterprise, especially if he overlooks the field of charity. In the realm of benevolent effort every charity is *the* charity. Most special charities are doing a work which, to their promoters, is the cure of all social evils. I would say that the jealousies between charity societies exceed that of the members of church choirs, if it be possible. Hence the necessity for thorough organization.

One weakness common to many societies is that they have few resources for developing the work following investigation; another, the small number of well-trained friendly visitors.

While there is wide diversity of opinion on many subjects in this work, there are four principles on which we are united, — investigation, registration, co-operation, and friendly visiting.

A friendly visitor learns that "life is real, life is earnest," and that it is as true with ourselves as with the poor.

It is strange how the new worker, full of sentiment and enthusiasm, pictures the transformation of a poor family through a few hasty

visits, a loaf of bread, and a word of encouragement. They forget that, if they would gain results of a valuable character, it must be done by long, patient, and constant effort. We flatter our poor and degraded people when we look for miraculous transformation. Elements of strength and virtue must come with slow and gradual growth.

The leading spirit in this work must be that of education, refinement, love, patience, ability, and a preparation for the work. It is no bed of ease. It is no fit place for him whose chief interest is in drawing his salary.

The early history of most organized charities is that of hardship and trial. It has been the work of a few devoted, earnest, Christian people, who have braved the storm of adverse criticism, and inch by inch, foot by foot, gained a standing in the realm of our social activity that has so elevated the poor in these cities that the social outlook is clearer and brighter than in places where charity is indiscriminate.

We all know it is wrong to give to him who declares he will not work. We often hear, "I can turn no one away from my door hungry"; and we might add, to justify our claim, the words, "Give to him that asketh." We say that to every one that asketh something should be given, but nothing should be given that may be hurtful to him.

Have you ever noticed that believers in temperance will talk against houses of vice and saloons, and turn right around and give to a stranger, when they have but little doubt that he will use it for an immoral purpose? Drink is one of the principal causes of beggary. There are people who always live along the line of least resistance. Hence the copper is "tossed to the beggar," and the Charity Organization Society loses another opportunity to aid the worthy poor. There are churches that can lay claim to this characteristic. This may be the reason why some societies fail to gain the co-operation of the churches. We have much spasmodic effort in church work for the poor. Really, we are not a selfish people; and why are we given to so many foolish customs and so much insincerity? God forbid that I should criticise the church. It is our grandest institution; and, as the churches are large religious families, why do not some of them take a deeper interest in their poor, and incidentally in all their members, by adopting a higher ideal for their

efforts? We would not be content to simply feed and clothe our little ones at home: we want to see them in school, in surroundings of politeness and refinement; we want them taught how to work and do all sorts of useful things; and we are not satisfied to leave the choosing to them. We, as parents and guardians, insist on proper personal effort.

The trained charity worker sees a greater need than that of material relief. The uneducated, inexperienced worker only sees in charity that which feeds and clothes the body. How this work is to be done and by what means are the questions often asked in new cities. What is the difference between our established relief societies and your organized charity association? Usually, nothing is seen but a duplication of relief societies. What is the difference? The one is for material relief: the other seeks to remove the cause for relief, and to prevent overlapping and duplication and to set into motion agencies for teaching and bettering the condition of the poor, first, by encouragement, and, second, if need be, by compulsion. Again, one is for the physical man only: the other is for the whole man.

Charity workers have no right to bring men, women, and children together under the guise of industrial or religious training, and point to them as being poor. The poor have burdens enough. We should not build children's homes, start kindergartens, boys' clubs, girls' sewing schools, and have them conducted in such a manner that we would not be willing to send our own children to them. It might be necessary, under certain conditions, to send our children to an orphan asylum for a short time; but, if from any cause we cannot take proper care of them ourselves, let us place them in good Christian homes.

The Christian thought of this country seems to have become much perverted in its dealings with its poor children. The institutions must be kept filled, in order to show the public the great work they are doing. We must have some such homes, where children can be bathed and reclothed, and where they can learn a few facts regarding life. We must have permanent homes for the feeble-minded, the incorrigible, and the like; but for the normal child let us open our eyes, unstop our ears, and warm our hearts, to see, hear, and receive these helpless little ones, and not fail to hear their piteous cry for a home and a mother.

We workers in this organized plan have learned that we must bring these questions home to ourselves. Would we encourage our little child to beg? Would we send our little girl to sewing school, where the teacher leaves her own at home, that she may go to teach the poor? "Do unto others as you would that they should do unto you."

We, as secretaries, may be in danger of becoming indifferent and perfunctory. Usually, "a word to the wise is sufficient." We are liable to become careless in our relations to the poor. We must put ourselves in their places, and thereby be able to dispense justice as well as charity. The business side of our charity work must be emphasized, but the heart must always throb in sympathy with him whose life is that of woe, sorrow, and crime.

It is dangerous to listen to reports of agents and visitors, and not go into the homes of the people ourselves.

In conclusion, a successful organization must have: —

1. An executive committee, composed of the best and most influential people of the place.

2. It must have an executive head, with training, efficiency, business ability, patience, and an intense love for the work.

3. It must insist on better care of our neglected children by parents and guardians.

4. It must train a large number of friendly visitors, who can and will spend a part of their lives for the personal benefit of those who need them.

5. It in some way must come closer to the people, and not be content to deal with only those who apply for assistance.

"Taken in the real sense of the betterment of humanity, it is the very flower and crown of all charity's kingdom. Slowly the truth is realized that he who gives himself to another's woe gives his best, his all, and his work is well done, and the result will be sure and fruitful in the far future years; for good seed, well planted and watched, oft-times grows while we are sleeping."

OUTDOOR RELIEF IN RELATION TO CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

BY GEORGE S. WILSON, WASHINGTON, D.C.

The work of the Charity Organization Society is, necessarily, closely related to that of all other charities in the community, if it is thoroughly efficient; and just in proportion as the Charity Organization Society comes into closer relationship with the work of other charities is it likely to be efficient in bringing about a proper co-ordination of the various benevolent forces in the community. Indeed, charity organization work is a work which from its very nature is incomplete in and of itself; and it is only as it brings about proper relations among the different charities of a community, both with itself and with one another, that it accomplishes the purpose it is intended to serve. A study, therefore, of the relationship between the Charity Organization Society and any other charity in a community is important, because it is only as these relationships are properly adjusted that efficient co-operation is brought about.

It would seem, however, that a proper relation between outdoor relief and charity organization is more important than is the relationship of the Charity Organization Society to any other one branch of charitable activity. There are several reasons why this should be so. In the first place, outdoor relief — that is, material relief, such as fuel, groceries, clothing, etc., or money given to families in their homes — is almost universally deemed to be one of the most dangerous forms of charitable relief, because of its tendency to weaken the character and sap the independence of the recipient. Further, a very large majority of all the families coming to the attention of the Charity Organization Society come as applicants for outdoor relief in some form or other. Hence most of the families with which charity organization workers have to do are those which either have been or are receiving outdoor relief; and, if we are laboring for the betterment of conditions in these families, it is certainly important that proper relationships exist between the relief-giving agency and the Charity Organization Society.

Indiscriminate relief-giving, undoubtedly, is a more potent factor in creating and perpetuating pauperism than anything else carried on in the name of charity. It was largely because of overlapping, lack of investigation, and a general inefficiency in the work of outdoor relief that Charity Organization Societies were first organized; and much of the effort of these societies has been, and in the future is likely to be, directed with a view to bringing about and maintaining such a system of outdoor relief as will accomplish the greatest possible good and work the least possible harm. I maintain, therefore, that the subject of outdoor relief is one of the most important with which Charity Organization Societies have to do, and, further, that it is one of the first problems with which it must deal in any community.

I do not believe that Charity Organization Societies can properly take up constructive and preventive work, such as friendly visiting, provident schemes, etc., while the outdoor relief work in the community is carried on in a haphazard manner, with imposition, overlapping, and general demoralization among the poor. The problem of the proper administration of outdoor relief is one of the first that the Charity Organization Society ought to attack.

Further, the problem of outdoor relief must mean for the Charity Organization Society not simply the question of whether or not relief shall be granted to the particular families coming to the notice of the society, but outdoor relief as it is administered generally in the community, whether by public officers or private relief agencies. In other words, the Charity Organization Society must concern itself with all outdoor relief in the community, in so far as it is possible to reach and influence relief-giving agencies. The Charity Organization Society must take a broad view. It must survey the whole field, and exert itself to bring about the largest total good. The society must not content itself with careful investigation and a wise administration of outdoor relief in the cases of those families which are directly brought to its notice, if at the same time other agencies are distributing outdoor relief in an unwise and hurtful manner to large numbers of other families that do not come to the notice of the Charity Organization Society. If, for example, there be a bad public outdoor relief system in any community, or a private relief organization that distributes outdoor relief unwisely, the Charity Organization Society must not say: "These agencies are respon-

sible for the evil that they do. We do better with the cases that are brought to our attention, but we are not to blame for the evils done by others." I say this must not be the attitude of charity organization workers. They must consider the subject in its broader aspect, and feel responsible for all the work of outdoor relief in a given community, in so far as they are able to influence it.

Having in mind, then, our point of view in reference to outdoor relief as affecting the whole community, let us consider some of the more important problems that present themselves in charity organization work. On many points there is a practical unanimity of opinion, so that we need not discuss these. Such, for instance, are the principles that careful investigation should precede relief-giving, that the relief should be adequate for the need, and that relief should be given with a view to ultimately putting the family beyond the need of relief. There are many difficult questions, however, connected with the administration of relief in particular cases; and probably no definite rules can be formulated which will cover every case that may arise. Family conditions are so different that in many respects we must rely upon the judgment of the agent and committee, as they consider each individual case.

I desire, however, to consider briefly two general questions which, to my mind, are vital in the question of the relationship between outdoor relief and charity organization. These questions are: first, Shall outdoor relief be given from the public treasury or from private funds,—shall we have public or private outdoor relief? second, Shall the Charity Organization Society itself give outdoor relief from its own treasury, or shall it be a strictly non-relief-giving organization?

These are old questions, and both have been frequently discussed in former Conferences; and an apology might be expected for bringing them up again. Still, neither of them has been finally and satisfactorily solved; and their importance is such that it behooves us to keep at them until we have solved them. Further, I do not think sufficient attention has been given these questions as they concern the smaller cities; and it seems to me that a full and free discussion at this Conference, especially in the section meetings, might help many of the smaller cities of the West and North-west to a satisfactory decision.

First, as to the question of public or private outdoor relief. This question has been before the Conference for consideration prob-

ably as frequently as any other, and it is probably safe to assume that the weight of opinion of the Conference to-day is in favor of private outdoor relief rather than public relief in cases where outdoor relief is found to be necessary. Many of the larger cities, including New York, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, Baltimore, San Francisco, Washington, and Kansas City, have no system of public outdoor relief; and it is generally conceded in these cities that it is better for the community, and especially better for the poor people themselves, that there is no such system. In these cities, whatever of general outdoor relief work is needed beyond that done by the churches and the smaller relief organizations is carried on by general relief societies, supported by private funds. In Buffalo, where the amount spent for public outdoor relief has been unusually large as compared with other cities, the Charity Organization Society is conducting an active campaign, looking to the lessening of the amount of relief given, if not to an entire abolition of the system. In Boston, where a very large sum is expended annually in outdoor relief, notwithstanding the fact that the city is well supplied with private charities, there is evidence that the question is raising a good deal of apprehension. It is probably safe to say that the preponderance of opinion among those best qualified to judge is opposed to the system of public outdoor relief in our larger cities. And the arguments in support of this contention are supported both by logic and experience. The subject is discussed at considerable length in many of the Conference reports. At the New York Conference, in 1898, Mr. Homer Folks presented quite an extensive report, giving the facts in reference to cities having a population of over 40,000 in 1890. But the subject as it concerns the smaller cities does not seem to have received so much attention.

During the past few months I have corresponded with the workers in some twenty-two of the smaller cities, with a view to learning their opinion on this question of public *versus* private outdoor relief. I find that nearly all those who replied to the communications sent out are heartily in favor of private rather than public outdoor relief. None of them unqualifiedly indorsed the system of public relief, and many are in favor of its abolition, though, in the particular community which they happen to represent, they feel that they are not yet quite ready for this step. None of those who replied offered any argument in favor of public outdoor relief other than that of necessity. There

seems a fear on the part of some that private charity could not bear the burden now being carried by the public outdoor relief system. But it should be borne in mind that the amount of public outdoor relief needed is likely to be very much less under a properly organized private agency than when given by public officials from public funds. The experience of Tacoma, Wash., is especially instructive in this connection. The secretary of the Associated Charities there writes: —

A few years ago the chairman of our board of county commissioners addressed a letter to this office in which he informed us that the limit of county indebtedness (fixed by law) had been reached, and that no more could be paid by his board for the relief of the poor. The commissioners had been paying nearly $1,000 per month for such relief. Cut off from their supplies at the court-house, the long procession which had received its monthly dole of alms from that source took up its march for this office. Great was its disappointment when we began to ask questions and to speak of sending visitors. Not a few were disgusted, and flatly declared, "Well, if you're that particular, I guess we won't bother you." The upshot of the business was that scores at once went about doing what they would better have been doing long before; *i.e.*, taking care of themselves. $150 a month easily took the place of the $1,000 formerly paid, and with what advantage to the recipients you very well know.

Would that other counties might reach the "limit of indebtedness," or by some other means be brought to face the problem of getting along for a time without public outdoor relief funds! An experiment of that kind would perhaps convince them more forcibly than anything else. Isn't it more than probable that other small cities would show a result similar to that in Tacoma if the experiment were tried? The public outdoor relief system seems to have the same effect on the community at large that it has on the poor people; that is, people feel that they could hardly get along without it until they are brought face to face with the necessity, and then they are surprised to learn how easily it can be dispensed with. I confess to a feeling of like timidity when I was engaged in the work at Toledo, Ohio, a young growing city of about 100,000 population, with many of the working class owning their homes. About $30,000 a year was spent in public outdoor relief in this city; and I was accustomed to think that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to get along without it. But after working in Washington for five years, in a city where out of a

total population of less than 300,000 there are 80,000 poor colored people, I find that we can get along nicely with a private relief fund of less than $10,000 a year, I am more than ever convinced that there is no absolute necessity for a public outdoor relief system in the new and vigorous cities of the North-west.

I desire to emphasize especially this question in relation to the smaller cities; for it seems to me most important that they should consider and settle it at the earliest possible day, because, the longer the system is in operation, the more firmly is it likely to become fixed, and, I might add, the more helpless and dependent the poorer classes will become.

But, if the Charity Organization Societies cannot bring about the abolition of outdoor relief in the immediate future, there still rests upon them the responsibility of using their efforts to bring about the best possible administration of the system. A great deal can be done in this direction, as is shown by the experiments in such cities as Grand Rapids, Hartford, and St. Paul.

But let us not think that a system of public outdoor relief well administered is as desirable as a private relief system. It is true that from the very nature of the case, in this country, at present, public relief is not likely to be so well administered as organized private relief; but the question of choice between the two is not by any means simply a question of administration. The difference in the attitude of the poor themselves toward a public relief fund, as contrasted with that in relation to private funds, is a more essential difference. People look upon public poor relief as a right, and learn to depend upon it in a manner entirely different from that in which they regard private relief; and it is not possible, I believe, to administer public relief funds in as satisfactory a manner as might be the case with funds supplied from private contributions. I think you will find this is the experience of those who have had to do with the administration of both kinds of relief.

Some two years ago in Washington our Associated Charities was called upon to distribute the sum of $1,000 of public money, the same being a balance in the hands of the public authorities from the appropriation made for medical relief. In some way or other the poor people learned of the presence of this fund even before it was known to all of our agents, and they quickly made demands upon it. They came with the old story that the money was for the poor.

They were poor: therefore, they had a right to a share of it. The administration of this fund of $1,000 caused us more trouble than would have been caused by the administration of $5,000 of private relief funds, and the effect upon the poor was wholly unsatisfactory.

Mr. Thomas Mackay, the well-known writer on questions of poor law relief in England, author of the "English Poor," "History of the English Poor Law," and many other valuable contributions to the literature of this subject, is probably as well qualified to speak in reference to administration of public outdoor relief as any student of the subject to-day. In addition to his exhaustive study of the history and theory of the subject he has had a large practical experience in the administration of outdoor relief. He says: —

> The abolition or limitation of poor relief is urged, not merely because outdoor relief can be best administered by volunteer agencies, but because its abolition restores men to their independence. . . . It is often said, but I think only by persons who have had no practical experience of such matters, that there is no difference brought about by transferring the duty of giving outdoor relief from a legal to a voluntary agency. Others ask, What is the necessity for this? If we could secure really good boards of guardians, Mr. Marshall has argued, they would administer out-relief with quite as much discrimination as any Charity Organization Society. This argument evades the whole point of our contention. We do not rely on the greater discrimination used by a voluntary agency. We rely on a much more efficacious protection; namely, the greater moderation of the poor in making claim on a charitable fund.
>
> Legal relief seems to be, indeed is, the right of all the poor equally. All are "poor"; that is, have an insufficient income. Application for relief, therefore, is made by all, or at all events by many more than will apply to a charitable fund.

Now we come to the question as to whether or not the Charity Organization Society itself shall be a direct relief agency or depend for relief upon other agencies. Shall the Charity Organization Society be a relief-giving or a non-relief-giving organization? This question may be said to be fairly settled for the larger cities. It is generally conceded that relief-giving by the Charity Organization Society hinders co-operation with other relief agencies, and the work of relief-giving tends to absorb the energies of the organization to such an extent that sufficient emphasis is not laid upon the other more important branches of preventive and constructive work. It is

true that not all the large cities have separate relief and Charity Organization Societies; but, still, it is pretty generally admitted that it would be well that they should have, where the conditions are such that both organizations can be adequately supported. But, where there are two societies, a question arises as to the proper relations between them. Should the Charity Organization Society and the relief society each have their own corps of investigators and simply exchange records, and their agents confer with one another to avoid duplication, as is done in co-operation with other agencies, and each be responsible for the decision of its own cases as to whether or not relief should be granted, or should the Charity Organization Society make investigations for all societies?

I know some will contend that there is hardly any doubt as to the proper method in this connection that each society should do its own investigating and be responsible for the handling of the cases brought to its notice. But I do not admit that the question has yet been settled by any means. The system of co-operation between the relief society and the Charity Organization Society, where each has its own corps of investigators, in many cases has not been, nor is it now in all cases, entirely satisfactory. On the other hand, several cities in which the Charity Organization Society is responsible for nearly all the investigations report that this method works satisfactorily. In Washington we are still in the experimental stage. We have a large private relief association, which grants relief to such families as are not provided for by other agencies. This association has no investigators, and gives relief only to families recommended by the Associated Charities. By this method the Associated Charities is made responsible for the decision as to whether any relief should be granted in practically all instances coming to the attention of the general relief agencies; but, at the same time, it is enabled to control the relief to such an extent that the decisions of its committees are generally final, and the committees are therefore able to discipline the families coming to their notice, because, if these committees decide that it is unwise that a family should have relief, it is very difficult for such family to obtain relief from any source.

In Kansas City, where there is no public outdoor relief, and the Kansas City Provident Association is the principal relief agency, the superintendent of the Provident Association reports that an Associated Charities was organized last December, and that the Provident

Association has "recently turned over to the Associated Charities the investigating and friendly visiting," as they regard this the better plan. This is the only instance of which I am aware where the relief association has abandoned the work of investigation, and turned it over to the Charity Organization Society.

In Buffalo, where they are conducting a campaign looking to the abolition of outdoor relief, they are confronted with the problem as to what kind of a relief agency should take the place of the public outdoor relief system, should that be abolished. The question in Buffalo is: In forming a relief society, shall it be so arranged that relief shall be granted only on the recommendation of the Charity Organization Society agents, or shall the new relief society make its own investigations?

There certainly appears to me to be differences enough in the practices of the various societies and the conditions in different cities to make further study of this question still desirable.

But, if we need two societies — namely, a relief society and a charity organization society — in the larger cities, what shall we say of the smaller cities, especially the cities having a population not exceeding thirty thousand? In nearly all the cities of this size in the West and North-west there exists the public outdoor relief system; and it would seem that, so long as this system is maintained, it were hardly necessary for the Charity Organization Society to give relief. Nevertheless, most of the societies in the smaller cities do give relief.

It seems to me that it would not be practicable to advocate the establishment of the two kinds of societies at present in these smaller cities. As the relief society naturally precedes the Charity Organization Society, possibly it would be better to organize relief societies which would carry on their work in harmony with Charity Organization principles. There seems to me no good reason why a well-organized relief society, properly administered, could not carry on relief work in a small city, and at the same time bring about co-operation among charity workers, suppress street begging, encourage provident schemes, etc., and do the work as well as it could be done by two organizations in the larger cities. Indeed, I believe that such a society in the smaller city, where the difficulties are so much less, might bring about a more desirable state of affairs than even our best societies in the larger cities can hope to see realized.

If the smaller cities are going to try to get along without public outdoor relief, they must have some well-organized private charity to take its place; and I believe that the substitution of private for public relief in these communities is one of the most important questions for them to consider. The public outdoor relief system is constantly at work, slowly but surely undermining the independence of the poor; and, unless a change is made, these smaller cities, where paupers are now almost unknown, will sooner or later find themselves burdened with a considerable class of chronic dependants. It takes some courage to attack the problem; but, if they would first organize efficient relief societies, they need have little fear that they would be unable to carry the burden imposed by the change. Like Tacoma, Wash., they will probably be surprised to find how light the burden really is.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDIVIDUAL.

BY WILLIAM C. SMALLWOOD,

GENERAL SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

The purpose of charity organization is to meet abnormal conditions and to supplement those influences which are generally sufficient to develop the normal individual. But after a quarter of a century the difficulty in the way of charity organization is an unconvinced public. The failures of the organization, and its ideal and altruistic principles, pitted against the vanity of individual achievement and a public a very small portion of which cares to be informed as to the best methods of charitable endeavor, keep us face to face with the old problems, and trying to talk enthusiastically, inspirationally, and convincingly of investigation, registration, co-operation, and friendly visiting. Unfortunately, this attitude of unbelief and indifference is not confined to the public alone. There is often a lack of intelligent comprehension of the problems of charity, and of the meaning and purpose of charity organization by boards of directors themselves, resulting in the absence on their part of intelligent enthusiasm for the work, which leaves to be undertaken by the paid workers what all

should assist in doing. And there is never enough money to employ sufficient workers to do this educational and propagative work. Wherefore, it is not surprising that the community has failed to intelligently comprehend the aims of charity organization and to give the co-operation necessary to its life.

Our first plea is naturally for organization, since without it we can do nothing. Emphasis must still be laid on this, not for organization itself, but because organization brings into harmonious and effective relationship all those forces which tend to the development of the individual, which is the chief end of all charitable endeavor. But there is danger that, unless constantly reminding ourselves of this fact, we may look upon organization as so many co-operating forces, preventive and curative *per se*, instead of a means of increasing the number of individuals influenced to do philanthropic work and for multiplying the impulses they bring to it. An indifferent public has grasped the tangible side of charity organization through the emphasis that has been laid on organization and the money required to support it, but it grasps chiefly the thought that we want co-operation to prevent imposition and to discover frauds. The true standard is not comprehended, which is to inquire into the applicant's condition, gently, intelligently, using all the resources which we possess; the condition ascertained, to carefully consider the man, the mental and physical causes which have brought him to this crisis, his present outlook on life, and the decisive and remedial measures necessary to lift him out of his present condition, and to raise his standard of life so as to prevent a recurrence of dependence.

Enough agencies already exist for the development of the individual, if the individual has been carefully enough diagnosed to point to his requirements, and the opportunities which these agencies offer are recognized, and energies and forces concentrated on them. Briefly, these are: educational laws, through which the whole community is touched; tenement-house reform, by which better habitation is provided, with all the uplifting influences of decent surroundings; settlements and neighborhood houses, through which a common meeting-place is provided, affording social relations, with the influences of books, pictures, and music; industrial and vacation schools, those in charge having excellent opportunities for close relationship with children, and through them with the occupation and interest of the family; tenement-house and home libraries, that take to the poor what they

otherwise would not go for or know of; outing associations and playgrounds, which restore health and give a larger vision to child-life; kindergartens, with all their beautiful and far-reaching influences; day nurseries, affording mothers opportunities for self-support, and children clean and healthful environment; saving societies, encouraging self-dependence, economy, and forethought; educational and curative temperance movements; the tramp problem, the agitation of which prevents the individual from feeding and housing the tramp without some return, and occasionally restores a man to his proper place in the community; publications and public addresses that educate, destroy class distinction, and create the social spirit; employment bureaus, such as the Associated Charities have in Minneapolis, where the work is furnished by the public at large. We have found in Minneapolis that through our Employment Bureau the most healthful and natural relations are established; and, through encouraging applicants to give their home addresses to employers, normal relations between employer and employee are established, individual resourcefulness of the applicant is developed, and the family restored to its natural place in the community.

In all these experiments — charitable, philanthropic, economic, and educational — the Charity Organization Society may be initiative, and become an integral part until they are assumed by the public. As these influences are multiplied, the development of the individual is indirectly affected. But in the last analysis it is not upon organizations, but upon the workers, paid and volunteer, that devolves the opportunity of directly developing the individual. When one considers the large number of persons who pass before our societies, and with how comparatively few its workers come in close enough touch for any length of time to have much influence upon them, we cannot but question if it is not possible to get a little nearer to a larger number. Individual development should be the vital object of all paid and volunteer workers; it should be the animus of every visit, of every question, of every silent observation, of every public address, of every attempt for organization.

The investigator must bear continually in mind that it is the man, rather than his condition, which needs consideration, else all further treatment will lack the positive knowledge of the causes which produced the present state, and lead to palliative rather than remedial measures. There is a tendency to deal with present instead of pos-

sible conditions. We need the long look ahead to invest the family with what it may become and be. Also, there is a lack of imagination on the part of many workers to get the point of view of those whom they visit, and so fail to touch the heart and influence the life of the individual. The complexity of human life, and the causes that create crises, and the social differences between the applicant and the man dealing with him, call for most careful study; and the weakness of charity organization, whether in committee or on the part of the individual, is a lack of the combination of study respecting such matters as ethics, economics, and psychology with practical work. This is true of many paid workers and still more of volunteers, and the difficulty is increased by the inability to secure the services of workers skilled in this head and heart knowledge of the poor. This scarcity of intelligent and sympathetically forceful men and women to act as general secretaries and assistants emphasizes the need of a permanent training school in philanthropy.

There are a few people with special gifts for easy personal relations across every sort of social chasm, but the vast majority of philanthropic workers are real only as they do not attempt intimate and affectionate relations with poor people. Whether we like it or not, the basis for such relations, ordinarily, does not exist; and nobody knows it better than the person approached. This does not prevent an honest and a democratic friendly acquaintance, and the value of this cannot be overestimated. To affect the life and character of an individual requires both self-discipline on the part of the visitor or friend, and not a little knowledge of human nature, partly to be got by observation, partly by study, and also the peculiar characteristic of what I should call the charitable man or woman, that he has a certain power of persuasion and influence, which enables him to bring any one in whom he is interested to a definite goal. To illustrate: —

A family of eight, of average possibilities, was given a friendly visitor four years ago. The man, a decorator, drank; and the support of the family fell on the eldest child, a boy of fifteen, who earned $4 per week in a department store. This condition necessitated intermittent city relief. Two years later the income was increased to $6.50 a week by the earnings of the second child, a girl. The boy's health began to break under the continuous strain, and the visitor through a Benevolent Individual got him a membership in the Young Men's Christian Association, which gave him the benefits of

the gymnasium and evening instruction classes. In the summer he worked in the country for the double advantage of health and better wages. The visitor, having purchased a new piano, sent them her old one, with the understanding that, if ever able, they should pay for it. She secured the volunteer services of one of the best instructors to teach the eldest boy, who, in turn, has taught the eldest girl. During all this time the friendly visitor was holding fast to the man, even when he had been turned out by his family, and, finally, about a year ago succeeded in getting him to take the Keeley cure. He is now restored to his family and earning, the boy's wages have been increased to $8 per week, there is music in the home and relief is discontinued.

A second illustration, though not an average case, is given, because it shows possibilities to work toward in the development of the individual, and the influences that can be used, proportionately, by those who come into relationship with people who have lacked life opportunities: —

A year ago a boy of eighteen, above the average in appearance, came asking employment. We gave him some copying, simply that we might come to understand him. He had lived in a small village in Minnesota. His father, dying from drink, had left $9,000 to the three children. The mother had remarried; and it was impossible for the boy, who was wayward and indolent, to live at home. There was a little money; but there was monumental ignorance, the mother being almost illiterate. The boy had made the home life unhappy through his idleness; and the mother said she thought the best thing would be to let him go without money until he was forced to steal, so he might be sent to the workhouse, which would humiliate and bring him to his senses. What he needed was firmness, appreciation, and recognition of his possibilities. A visitor was secured, and after a year's experimenting he is now in a business school.

The younger brother, now seventeen, the opposite of the elder, both in temper and disposition, was last year taking a course in book-keeping in a Catholic school, simply because the parents thought this would be a means of earning a living. The boy wanted to study dentistry. He was placed in a college preparatory school, the visitor persuading the mother that it was better to use the little money he has for his education than to let it lie until he came of age, when it would simply mean so many dollars and cents to him. He loves

music, but had played only popular airs. The visitor got him the best pianoforte instructor, and he was given Chopin and Beethoven. Through the visitor he has heard, at his own expense, Damrosch, Gadski, and Bispham in Wagnerian interpretation, Paderewski, Zeisler, the French Opera Company, and the Thomas Orchestra. He has been introduced to the realm of literature, and has been taken to art exhibits. He had never been to the theatre. He has seen Julia Arthur, Viola Allen, Ada Rehan, and Irving and Terry. At the visitor's suggestion he read the histories of the actors whom he saw, the plays which were presented, and the librettos of the operas; and in every way the effort has been to make his standard of living the highest.

The social spirit is still lacking in the average normal individual of the community in his relation to his less favored as well as his more favored neighbor. The charity organization movement has a great work before it of an educational character, if it shall endeavor to shape the conduct of the individual and family coming under its influence in harmony with higher social aims.

The man should be studied psychologically, — birth, environment, education, life, mental and moral capacity. Is there in him a latent moral force, a love of the beautiful, of music, of nature, of sunsets and skies? The dominant thought should be, What influence can I bring to bear on this man to inspire him to a better understanding of life? Can I be to him what I want him to become? Shall I share my opportunities with him? Shall I have him in my home, suggest good books, good plays to see, music to hear, and pictures to look upon? Shall I take him to walk with me into the country, where the language of the birds, fields, hills, and streams, may be revealed?

The object of all charitable endeavor should be to assist men to develop an understanding of the things that make the larger life. The spirit of settlement endeavor is to teach people to enjoy their leisure. This joy will give a zest that will provide material necessities and lead to luxuries. The paid and volunteer charity organization worker, with this spirit, can forget the material, and fill the life that touches his with things that beautify and inspire.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION PRINCIPLES APPLIED TO MISSION WORK.

BY C. N. POND, OBERLIN, OHIO.

In applying to mission work the principles which we are now studying, it is understood that "charity organization" is simply such an adjustment of agencies as will further the wisest relief, discourage professional begging and promiscuous giving, prevent unintentional overlapping, reduce imposture to a minimum, encourage the despondent, and open up the avenues of self-support and self-respect. The technical terms, "charity organization" and "associated charities," have sprung historically from the fact that such adjustments have commonly been attained only by the correlation of previously existing relief boards or societies; but they are now the recognized appellations of any scheme or schemes entered into with a comprehensive view of the many-sided philanthropy needed with reference to the poor. And it is precisely on mission fields, at home and abroad, that this many-sided philanthropy finds some of its most specific illustrations.

There has been an impression that charity organization must necessarily be limited to large cities, which can sustain paid officers with elaborate systems. This paper is written in the contrary view. Wherever the needy are to be relieved and assisted and the disheartened encouraged, there should be sought some method other than the mere transient debilitating dole. Even in cases of succor so personal and confidential, so athrill with the vital touch of true love, as that the left hand need not know what the right hand does, there is no reason why that right hand itself should ignorantly do a blundering, harmful thing. The Christly right hand, though often solitary and alone, will not commit the folly of a disjointed, disorganized, aimless, make-shift charity. And wherever two or more are bestowing alms in the same field, and are therefore liable to bestow unwittingly upon the same applicants, they need, in some way, a mutual understanding, lest their generosity become the prey of the designing or the undoing of the weak. And this mutual understanding is a part of what we mean by charity organization.

There is emphatic need of this in mission work. In the first place,

such work very largely concerns the poor. Slum spots in the cities, neglected and destitute rural areas in our own country, or the poverty-pinched masses of heathenism abroad, such are the natural habitat of missions. In the next place, mission work itself tends upward. "We used to have meal, water, and salt: we now have a good dinner," was the testimony of a sample family, who were very poor until uplifted by mission work. "The problem of poverty" is ever present on the mission field. It was Cyrus Hamlin, the missionary, who set up improved mills and bakeries at the capital of the Turkish empire. It was Bishop Taylor, a missionary, who projected a *cordon* of industrial posts across Africa, to teach the law of labor along with the gospel of love. It was Tyler of Natal, a missionary, who related the hope they had for the soul of any unclad Zulu when he appeared at the white man's door with the plea, "Teacher, I want a shirt."

Moral effort at home needs the safeguard of "scientific charity." There is the seedy and solemn applicant at the door of an earnest pastor, claiming to be a brother minister from a distant state, and needing, to get on just now, only a few dollars, which he surely will return. There is the family at the revival meeting who appear greatly interested, and yet in some way have raised the suspicion that they are shrewdly working the church for cash and old clothes. A mission visitor at a jail is perplexed as to how he can show the interest he really feels, without letting his visits degenerate into the convict's opportunity to feign reformation and beg for some bonus. Even the penetrating Moody found it needful to be on his guard against the convert who would confess his sins, and then wanted to realize on his conversion in ready funds. On a mission field certain youth attend school a little while and feel above work ever afterward. And it was on a similar field that begging was so common as to arrest the attention of even a little girl, who inquired, "Mamma, how is it that folks become — from people, into beggars?" then, after a moment's musing, added, "Oh, I guess I know: they get too lazy to go to the bank, and then they don't have any money, and then they are beggars." It was a child's philosophy, but touched a key-note, — *too lazy*, one of the perpetual human tendencies that render charity, skilful charity, tactful and upbuilding charity,— in other phrase, "charity organization," — needful on mission ground and everywhere.

Everywhere? Yes, for some will inevitably fall behind their fellows. The myriad-formed diversity which will ever constitute one

chief charm of human society, must subject some to an over-stress. Everywhere man must help his fellow, and it should be done in the considerate, tactful method. We should push public education in this line until there is a wise charity plan in every town of a thousand and more, and until our township trustees, poormasters, boards of relief, and children's guardians become constituent parts of such a plan. As things are at present, most of the millions disbursed by our legal eleemosynary officers are scattered on the secondary crudity of trying to ascertain who are worthy, helping them with a gratuity and abandoning the unworthy to their fate. This method, being interpreted, means to pauperize the worthy and criminalize the rest, to tempt the industrious poor to beggary and the idle to burglary. Our statutes under this head are called "poor-laws"; and it is said that they too often deserve that title, being *poor laws*, indeed.

The facts in the case make it evident that in large cities and small ones, in town and country, at home and on far-away mission fields, wherever there is a call to encourage the hopeless, strengthen the weak, stimulate the indifferent, and relieve the distressed, the hand of charity should hold forth a beacon of new life, and not a premium for imposture and mendicancy. The wolf may be driven from the door of despair, the "shut-in" may be led to discover a horizon of opportunity, and even the ignoble and the false, the soul sunken in indulgence and pretence, may hear a call, whether it be heeded or not, to better ways and a regenerated heart. This is the new philanthropy, the very substance of charity organization.

Investigation, registration, visitation, co-operation, such is the series of words with that convenient terminal, *ation*, in which we commonly outline certain parts of "scientific charity." And each of them has its place in mission work. I will speak of them as concretely embodied in one particular field; namely, that of the Industrial Missionary Association of Alabama, among Black Belt Negroes. To the above summary terms we add such others as occupation, expectation, and education, — something to do, hope in doing it, and industrial, academic, and moral training all along the way.

Have we not here the complete cycle of excellences in charity,— investigation, registration, visitation, co-operation, occupation, expectation, education? And they all have a place in any missionary or other adequate philanthropic scheme.

Our situation in the Black Belt of Alabama is different from that

in any city or town represented in this Conference. That is one reason for presenting the case. The point to be elucidated is that, under circumstances the most diverse, the operative principles of a wise charity are the same. The particular local methods vary endlessly, but the fixed radicals of human nature and human life run through all.

The present paper is to be followed by discussion. It is desirable that this discussion take the most practical turn. For instance: How can a community, unable to employ a paid charity worker, secure proper investigation? How can existing agencies be brought into mutual good understanding to discourage promiscuous begging? How can the people in a small community learn to be kind without being ruinously indulgent? How can charity in such communities take mainly the method of upbuilding rather than of relief?

Investigation.

That we attend to on the Alabama Black Belt, though our method is inapplicable in most other places under existing conditions. We work with the very poor among the colored race, not to give alms, but to develop strength. We have 4,000 acres of land, with farm allotments, houses, mills, store, post-office, railway station, churches, schools, and related activities. Our rule is, no gratuity whatever, except in very unusual cases. We rent land and a home. The tenant has an option to buy on the instalment plan. But he must pay the rent he engages to pay. Now, before renting, we must know the party. Who is this man? Where is he from? Will he work? If down, will he try to rise if we give him a chance? Is this woman his wife? If not, will he marry her immediately? If she is another man's wife, will she obtain a lawful separation from the man she has left, and become the lawful wife of the man with whom she is living? If there is occasion, we apply the labor test, sending a man to the field to work for wages, If he will not work, we cannot take him on. He must take hold, or make shift as he has done before. We cannot use philanthropic funds to sustain the idler. Thus all our people are thoroughly known in person and habit.

That method, some one interposes, is not available otherwhere, unless a good deal of land be owned. This we admit. And our point is that, even in a situation so unusual, the principle applies.

Although immediate distress must of course have immediate relief, yet nowhere should any continuous philanthropic help be given without proper scrutiny of cases.

Registration.

The essence of this is some proper deposit for information regarding cases of aid, so that each new application or effort will not be simply a new haphazard. Such deposit of information may be in a detailed system of book entries, cards, and envelopes, like those in New York and Indianapolis or in some less elaborate registry. Perhaps in sundry instances the only and ample register is the memory of a faithful worker, though, in general, the memory alone is insufficient. In our Alabama work our registration embodies itself in a complete book account — that is, a business account — with each beneficiary. Contracts, loans, advances, payments, and grants are accurately recorded.

A very profitable line of inquiry in this connection is, What method of preserving and using the knowledge of cases have the workers found most practical in each community?

Visitation.

This is an effort to use the uplifting power of friendship. "Not alms, but a friend" is a proverb which regards the needs of the poor. The "friendly visitor" is a familiar figure in recent beneficence, varying in character from the paid expert to the volunteer and amateur. In some administrations such visitor directly or indirectly grants relief; while in others they are sedulously kept aloof from that service, in order more completely to devote themselves to social and moral influences.

In the work of the Industrial Missionary Association of Alabama, personal contact is a prominent feature. Our teachers and managers see the people in their homes, but, perhaps, still more frequently in other places, particularly the store and post-office. No liquor, of course, is sold, and no tobacco in any form. People come in freely, and a hundred things are talked over. The effort is to make counsel, interest, advice, appropriate confidences, and the glow of true friendship stimulate to effort along the upward way.

Co-operation is evidently involved in all these activities; and, as for occupation, our very foundation is built upon it. We own 4,000 acres. We rent farms, which the people are to carry on under suitable advice. They are encouraged to buy. We do some farming as an association. Mills, fields, houses, store, schools, make up a total of busy labor.

The future must hold some possibility, some achievement or reward. Hopelessness is the palsy of the soul. It is this which in some measure fulfils Edwin Markham's vision of "The Man with the Hoe": —

> "Bowed with the weight of centuries, he leans
> Upon his hoe, and gazes on the ground,
> The emptiness of ages in his face,
> And on his back the burden of the world."

Work alone can never be enough. There must be some result and progress to redeem life from utter barrenness.

This condition the philanthropic must attend to in all varieties of situation. In our Alabama plant we open up every avenue of progress. Every pound of cotton our tenant raises, every domestic animal, every vegetable or fruit, is, of course, his own. He begins to acquire a plough, wagon, mule, and outfit of tools. His tenement is not the one-room cottage, where privacy is impossible and decency defied. He has a "white man's chance," in a cottage where his daughter can grow up with the maiden bloom of modesty. He is a man industrially free, with a chance for a career; and, if flood or drought or fever bar his way for a season, he knows it is — as the lawyers say — "the act of God," and not some oppressive and repressive cruelty of human greed. Beyond this, he can begin to acquire a home of his own. Magic possession, — a home of his own! The free man's castle, the bulwark of a self-respecting manhood, may become his. Home, farm, church, school,—quadrilateral of personal power, mightier than any hollow square or Macedonian phalanx for the conquest of the world!

These people must learn to work, to think, to plan, to buy and sell, to command themselves. For this we amply provide. Every dollar of revenue from rent or store or mill must, by our charter, be devoted to education and training. There never can be a dividend to any shareholder. "The People's College," the common school, opens its doors and the pillared avenues to all

business and all literature. The Sunday-school, the circle for prayer, the stately but simple ceremonials of public worship, rouse the instincts of immortality. The weird plantation song, "I want to sit on the members' side," grows gentle and sweet, and by and by blends its music with some hymn of the Church Universal in all lands and times, as "Rock of Ages, cleft for me."

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN ITS RELATION TO THE CHARITY PROBLEM.

BY PERRY N. HISER, HEAD TRUANT OFFICER, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

The latest report (1897–98) of the Commission of Education for the United States shows that the first compulsory attendance law now active was enacted for the District of Columbia in the year 1873, that twenty years elapsed before such another enactment, since which time these enactments have been as follows: six states in 1893, five states and the territory of New Mexico in 1895, five states in 1896, eleven states in 1897, and three states in 1898, making a total of thirty states and two territories having compulsory attendance at the close of 1898.

Other states of which I have not learned may have joined this column of progress in 1899, but the number already in marching order is sufficient to suggest the very good activity in this phase of legal enactment of this country within the last seven years.

It would be as unwise as profitless to attempt, in the time given here for the discussion of this subject, even the most general treatment of the different truancy laws — for such I shall hereafter call them — in the various states for which they have been enacted. In their main features they are similar, but in matter of detail they are widely different.

From henceforth the discussion on the part of the public must be limited largely to the laws that are or those to be enacted on this subject, and the administration of them; for any consideration of social life and conditions for the sake of establishing a public opinion for the purpose of obtaining further enactment along this line is not

only tardy, but useless. The summary of these enactments in the first paragraph shows the extent to which public opinion has crystallized itself along this line. It is these crystals which demand the attention of the public now.

These laws must now be turned upon, and examined to see if they have within themselves, or in relation to other enactments existing or to exist, the essential requisites whereby the child is taken in infancy, and protected and guided through childhood and youth, in such a way that, when this period is passed, it can be self-supporting and self-directive. If upon investigation these laws are found to be what is needed from the standpoint of legislation, see if they are enforceable, — see to it that they contain every realization of their purpose. No condition is more demoralizing to society than to have upon statute books a mass of laws legislatively good, but executively bad.

What chapter of our people can be recalled that is more flippant and weakening than the one which shall record our freak legislation during the last decade? It must describe a museum of legal hybrids. Who knows the influence it has and will exert upon our respect for the dignity of law, which is, after all, the greatest factor in its being?

But now let us turn to a more specific treatment and consideration. As stated in the beginning, it is useless to attempt a consideration of the truancy laws of the various states, nor can place be given to the discussion at length of the law of any one of these states; but it is hoped that some cogent hints may be dropped which may suggest a few points that will be helpful to those of you who have to do in any way with such laws.

The first problem which confronted me upon beginning to direct the truancy of Indianapolis last September was the inability to determine the truancy population of that city. The law says that all children between the ages of six and fourteen years, inclusive, must be in school the entire school year. But who are these children? What are their names? Where do they live and to what school district do they belong? These are all pertinent questions. How can they be put in school if it is not known at the beginning who they are, where they live, and to what school they should go? It was supposed that the teachers would know, but they did not. They knew who were attending, but not who should attend.

The school enumeration showed those who could attend, but not those who must. This law should have prevented this difficulty by

providing for such an enumeration as would definitely give this population, or should empower the board to make such changes in the present enumeration as seemed necessary to the needs of this law. As it is, it would take a patrolling force of truant officers as large as that of the police to determine with certainty that all children belonging were in school. Such a truant force is impracticable in any city.

Again, the Indiana law for 1897 required children to attend school only twelve consecutive weeks of the school year. This law, defective in that every parent could delay starting his child to school until the last twelve weeks, became in practice more an observance of the letter than the spirit of the law, and thus greatly weakened its effects, because the time was too limited to enforce the law against all the offenders, and the school year was so near its close that it seemed to many that any enforcement of the law was persecution rather than prosecution, besides the injury to the child's progress and annoyance to the school of which it might be a member by a desultory attendance for six months, without a remedy. This difficulty is now overcome by the amended law, requiring attendance the entire school year. Connecticut and Massachusetts are the only other states requiring attendance the entire school year.

Another deficiency in nearly all the truancy laws now active is the insufficient number and manner of appointing officers for the enforcement of these laws. This, instead of being the weakest point in these laws as they now are, should be the strongest; for the best laws that mind can conceive and hand strike off will be worthless in results unless capably executed. This is too much a truism to need further comment. These officers must be sufficient in number and efficient in capacity, capable of doing the work promptly and ably, and in appointment must be absolutely beyond political control of any kind.

Then there is the matter of accessory institutions to provide for those children on the border line of abnormality,— the dullards, the excessively nervous, the incorrigibles and petty criminals, too tender in years to be incarcerated in the institutions provided for older juvenile offenders. Also, all truly defective children should be placed, wherever found, in the institutions provided for their respective deficiencies.

These suggested defects, though not nearly all, must suffice for want of time; but I trust enough has been said to suggest how utterly

feeble most of these laws already enacted are, and that you will bestir yourselves to have them replaced and good ones enacted in their stead. Repeal and re-enact, but do not alter them, because a misfit law is like a misfit suit of clothes,— the more it is altered, the worse it fits.

But law is not the only phase in the truancy question. It is not even the most important one: it is only a working force. It is the agency of the state in obtaining a more effectual relation between the institutions of the families and the school by defining the duty of the former to the latter and by attaching a penalty for non-discharge of this duty. The law has nothing to do with causing the fact of truancy,— the child's absence from school: this will be found elsewhere. The cause of absence from school, and by this is meant wilful absence (for only such is truancy), will be found either in the nature and conditions existing in the family or the nature and conditions existing in the school, or in both,— either in the attitude of the parents toward child and teacher or the attitude of the teacher toward child and parents, or both.

It is when the truancy law is viewed from the standpoint of results to be accomplished by it, and not merely as a means of this accomplishment, that it is seen in the supremacy of its power. It is here that its relation to organized charity is first disclosed. For instance, take the laws of Vermont, Colorado, and Indiana. In these states it is provided that, where parents are unable to furnish their children with clothing sufficient for attending school, this shall be provided in Vermont by the town or city; in Colorado, the district; and in Indiana, by the county. In Indiana this is dispensed by the truant officer. Now this involves relief work pure and simple.

The truant officer must be very careful lest he make a greater breach in a month than the Charity Organization can mend in a year.

The truant officer either should be a trained charity worker himself or perform this phase of his duty under the direction of the Charity Organization itself, else that which was intended by the law to prevent truancy has made pauperism. Nor is the relation between truancy and organized charity less obvious and potent when the causes of truancy above stated are considered.

If you were to consult the records of a truant officer, you would find that the truants reported are from the same classes of families as those found in the application record of the Charity Organization.

On both these records will be found classes commonly suggested by the four I's,— the ignorant, the itinerant, the intemperate, and the indifferent. Since these are old friends, or acquaintances at least, of all charity workers, a passing word concerning each will suffice.

It is not meant, however, that one class of parents is ignorant, another itinerant, and another intemperate, and still another indifferent, for one parent may have one or more or all of these traits; but these are the conditions most often found in truants' homes.

The ignorant are those who do not know how to fill out the necessary blanks required nowadays by an up-to-date city school. There is a note from the teacher about this and another about that. There is a certain kind of book for this and a peculiar sort of pencil for that, which seems entirely senseless to the parent, who becomes discouraged; and, if not handled in just the right way, he becomes rebellious, and then there is trouble between parent and teacher, which results in the child's being kept out of school. Then the case is reported to the truant officer, who interviews the parent and finds out the ground of the trouble, removes it if he can, and the child re-enters school. Soon a new matter comes up, and the same thing is repeated.

The itinerant are of two classes,— those who travel from city to city and those who move about in one city. The first of these are nomadic sort of people, who never intend identifying themselves with any community. A threatened prosecution often rids the city of them. The second class are much more troublesome. They move from one district to another so often that it takes a great deal of time and careful watching to keep their children in school with any degree of regularity. An eternal vigilance is the only method which obtains results with this class.

The intemperates are often vicious and always neglectful of their families. There are times when there is a reign of disorder and distress in such homes, and at such times the children belonging to them are irregular at school.

The other day I received a note from a teacher with this statement in it: "Lawrence —— is not in school to-day. His sister says he drank too much beer yesterday, and did not feel well enough to come to school this morning." This is a case for the officer of the board of children's guardians, as well as for the truant officer. This class requires care, study, and patience for the children's sake.

It is in the homes of the wholly indifferent that greatest difficulties arise. In the preceding cases there is a basis upon which to build: small oftentimes though it is, yet there is enough upon which a hope may perch. But with the indifferents there is nothing. These are parents who are consciously outside the whirl of any normal society. They have no appreciation whatever of institutional life. They are equally oblivious to its blessings and reproaches, its duties or penalties. They have never lived: they merely exist. They feel no greater interest in their children than they have in themselves, and are utterly devoid of solicitude for both. Persistent visiting by the truant officer in conjunction with that of the friendly visitor is the only solution yet found.

It is useless to take more of your time in discussing classes before you, whose ability to conceive which is far greater than mine to describe. You have all been in these homes many times, and have seen the swarms of children, nearly always neglected, stream through the doors and into the alleys and streets; for these classes are always prolific.

It is from such homes as these that the great army of newsboys and bootblacks is recruited,— an army so vast and formidable that its surrender will be the greatest triumph for the truant officers, and the healthiest boon any city can crave.

Professor T. J. Charlton, whom you all know, said some years ago, in speaking of occupation for boys: "I know none worse than the occupation of newsboys and bootblacks. This is the street school, through which nine out of ten of the boys in the reform schools are graduated. All street occupations are demoralizing."

We have taken a peep into the homes from which truants come. Now let us take a glance into the schools whither they must go.

The institution of a school in a great city is, of necessity, a great system, and, like all systems, has a tendency to exist for the sake of the system rather than for the end for which it was created. There is always a danger of becoming self-centred; and, to the degree it does, to that degree it loses usefulness. As a friend said to me the other day, "It is like a ponderous locomotive that uses all the steam it makes to propel itself, leaving none to draw the train to which it is attached."

How just such a criticism is of our city schools will be determined after a period of successful administration of the truancy law; for the

operation of this law means placing and keeping in school a population never before seen within its walls. Formerly the undesirable were allowed to drop out, and the incorrigible were suspended. Hitherto the school had to adjust itself only to those pupils who had a fairly well-defined home training for a basis; and, naturally enough, the school adjusted itself to these conditions only. But now the problem is changed. The conditions are different. Now the school must be able to handle not only those who need its influence and direction, but also those who need its guidance and inspiration their only hope,—those for whom closest analysis must show the public school was first established, and for whom it is now being maintained.

Compare, if you please, the average child from the homes already mentioned — the child with poverty for an inheritance and neglect for a birthright, the child who knows all that misery can inflict and want deny, the child scolded to school — with another child who is the idol of a well-appointed home, the heir of attention and courtesy, who enters school every morning with lips still moist from a fond mother's kiss. Compare the conditions and needs of these two children, then demand a school system that is flexible enough to apply to each, and you have set a task for the present and future educators worthy their highest efforts.

Given a school system which present needs demand, and which is vitalized by a corps of teachers who possess common sense as well as æsthetic natures, whose hearts are as susceptible as their minds are keen, and much has been done to realize the purpose of the truancy law, which purpose is only to test the public schools as a factor in conferring citizenship upon the youth of the land.

But children must attend school as they are. They cannot wait for needed changes. The children that come from indifferent and slothful homes are ragged, dirty, and unkempt, not from choice, but necessity. Those that need encouragement and direction, and those that are still worse,— those just off the streets, who are defiant and need restraint,— all these must go to school. Here they may be met by a teacher with a wholesome personality, one who is a teacher in spite of the system. Such a teacher will receive these children. She understands them. She knows the conditions from which they come. She is mother, friend, teacher, all, to them. They are in their first paradise.

These children may have come to a different school, and here met

a system-made teacher who does not like children, who does not understand and who cares less whence they have come. These children are in — well, it makes no difference where they are: they will not stay. These children will be sent out with a curt note to their parents, telling them to clean and tidy up their children before they send them to school. The parents are insulted, become indignant. Children stay out of school, are reported to the truant officer. He calls upon the parents. This adds injury to insult, and rebellion to indignation. This is not an uncommon situation in the life of a truant officer, but a most perplexing one. The difficulty here is quickly enough seen, but not so easily remedied. But, if things cannot be adjusted, what will be the use of the school or the truant officer to these children?

There are two ways of handling this difficulty. One is to see the teacher, and explain to her the impossibility of the homes to respond to her request, and have these children admitted without one plea, though their appearance is not what it should be. The other is to see the parents, and do what can be done to have them take better care of their children. These are the things to be done, but who is to do them? The truant officer may reach the teacher, because he is her servant; but he cannot reach the parents, because he is an officer of authority, and not a person to conciliate.

Here is where the truant officer and friendly visitor become mutual friends. These families have, for some time, doubtless, been the object of the visitor's solicitude and care. Never until now has the opportunity come to her whereby she can utter herself. Never until now did these parents find a thing which they had to do,— a duty which they had to perform. But here is one they can escape only through a fine or the cell. They may never before have formed a legitimate habit, but now they must begin forming the one of sending their children to school. Their lives must take on one aim, one responsibility, which in time may become a vital cord to bind them to the social order of things. This must be done, if done at all, through a constant co-operation of the charity organization and the truancy system, since organized charity and the truancy system are working for the same end in the same field, though the former includes the latter,— the former for dependent adults and children, the latter for children only, for children in their relation to school,— while charity organization includes every relation in life. But both systems must

be in constant touch; and so they are, as the facts obtained by the one are always complements to those elicited by the other. It is seldom that a family having school-children in it, visited by the family visitor, is not also called upon by the truant officer. One finds out things the other did not learn regarding those visited, a combining of which help both to better understand conditions and obtain results.

Many incidents from personal experience might be mentioned, showing the value of the co-operation of these two lines of effort, but space forbids; and, in closing, I must utter a final prophetic word regarding a possible result of the union of these two forces.

Society in all its complexity has never before seen more clearly than now the need of a vital centre which is both to receive and transmit life influence, a common place where the simple habits of thrift and progress may be formed, a neutral spot not infested by class distinctions, nor denominated by creed, but alike to all persons and institutions. This centre, this place, this spot, I believe, is the public school.

I think, when the true purposes of the truancy law are better understood and the value of organized charities more widely known and acknowledged, that a co-operation between these two forces can and will make the public schools this social centre. It is not impracticable now to have a co-operation between the friendly visitor, the truant officer, and the teacher. I know it is being done already in a few instances. If it can be done in a few, why not in all where necessary? Why not look toward having a visitor for this purpose alone? The teachers have not the time to study the homes under present conditions, if they had the desire. The parents will not go to the teacher through lack of interest. Yet the school must reach the home, and hold it by a stronger thread than the child if it accomplishes its true mission.

The school must not forget, from kindergarten to university, that its highest aim should be to make men and women, and not scholars,— to confer citizenship, and not degrees. A curriculum is a small factor unless conferred with the personality of the teacher. It is to give this personality its just importance that suggests the idea of the school becoming the true social centre of our city population. To this end should truancy and charity work conspire.

XIII.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REPORTS FROM STATES.

The Committee on Reports from States has the pleasure of acknowledging the receipt of 40 reports out of a possible 50. The 10 delinquent states are: Southern states, Mississippi and Tennessee; North Central states, Illinois and Wisconsin; Western states, California, Idaho, Nevada, Oklahoma, Washington, and Wyoming.

Full reports are given from several states which have been delinquent in previous years. We call especial attention to Professor Blackmar's interesting exhibit of the charities and corrections of Kansas, the result of much intelligent labor; to Archbishop Joyner's urgent plea for further advancement in the South, especially in South Carolina; and to Secretary Byers's survey of Ohio legislation. The New Hampshire report on dependent children is particularly valuable.

The state conferences of charities are growing yearly in value, influence, and numbers. New Conferences have been organized in Kansas, Missouri, and Virginia, and a Pacific Coast Conference is to be held in January. Such conferences exist in New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New York, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Colorado, and Canada.

SUMMARY OF REPORTS BY SECTIONS.

Following the precedent of the past two years, we submit a brief summary of the state reports, grouped by geographical sections: —

The North Atlantic States.

State Conference of Charities.— The New Hampshire State Conference has made an elaborate investigation and report on the dependent children of the state, most of which is embodied in the New Hampshire report. A state conference of charities is to be organized in New York, in addition to the annual convention of superintendents of the poor, and will hold its first session in November in Albany.

State Boards of Charities.— The New York Court of Appeals has decided that the jurisdiction of the State Board of Charities over charitable institutions extends only to those which are maintained in whole or in part by the state or some of its political divisions; also, that the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children is not a charitable institution, and is therefore not subject to the inspection of the board. This decision restricts materially the work of the board.

Children.— The Connecticut (reformatory) School for Boys has now a supervising agent to secure work and homes. New Jersey has long had such an agent. The Massachusetts State Board has been authorized to remove and take into its custody, or restore to the parent or guardian, any child under the age of seven years, cared for apart from its parents and not cared for properly. The board is given summary powers of investigation.

Massachusetts is providing a farm colony on a farm of 2,000 acres for feeble-minded children graduating from the State School for Feeble-minded. The new Hampshire inquiry shows 623 children dependent on public support and 780 in private orphan asylums. The report recommends a systematic supervision by the State Board of Charities. The New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians found 403 children in almshouses May 1, 1900, most of whom have since been removed and provided for in families, with or without payment for board. New York has established a state hospital for crippled children. Comptroller B. W. Coler is still opposing indiscriminate grants of public funds to private institutions and the unnecessary support of children having competent relatives. A children's court is proposed in New York City. The placing of New York institution children in family homes is increasing. New York has 31,218 dependent children in institutions, not including

deaf, blind, feeble-minded, and delinquent children. Rhode Island has adopted a law for the separate arrest, transportation, confinement, and trial of juvenile offenders.

The Insane.— The Massachusetts Board of Insanity has made a special report, recommending that all insane be cared for in state institutions. This would involve the transfer of between 5,000 and 6,000 persons from town to state expense. They recommend also the establishment of a colony for the chronic insane. Two new private sanatoriums have been established in Connecticut. Connecticut still has some chronic insane in town poorhouses. New York hopes soon to make its state care adequate, but there are still about 1,000 more patients in the state hospitals than their certified capacity. In New Jersey there is a movement for county insane asylums, which is not favored by the State Charities Aid Association. Pennsylvania reports satisfaction with the law of 1897, providing for county and municipal care of insane patients.

Epileptics.— The Massachusetts Hospital for Epileptics is being enlarged to a capacity of 350, with the classification into 3 groups: (*a*) insane epileptics, (*b*) sane epileptic men, (*c*) sane epileptic women. New York has 378 epileptics in Craig Colony and 316 in almshouses.

Penology.— New Hampshire has one county jail where labor is compulsory. The Federation of Women's Clubs has made a thorough investigation of the jails. In Massachusetts the effort to place all county jails and houses of correction under the control of the state failed in the legislature. Connecticut is expending $125,000 in improving the state prison along modern lines. New York reports a marked diminution in the number of convicts in the county penitentiaries without an increase of convicts in other penal institutions. Considerable progress has been made in employing jail prisoners, chiefly in road building. The effort of the Women's Prison Association to obtain legal right of entrance to penal institutions was unsuccessful. The new workhouse at New Castle is expected to introduce a new era in the penal system of Delaware.

Southern States.

Boards of Charities.— Congress has at last established a board of charities for the District of Columbia. The office of superintendent of charities for the district was first filled by the late Dr. Amos G.

Warner, who recommended that his office be abolished and a state board of charities be established. This recommendation was renewed by Herbert W. Lewis, who was appointed superintendent of charities in 1897. The new board has appointed as superintendent, to succeed Mr. Lewis, Mr. George S. Wilson, superintendent of the Charity Organization Society. The Maryland legislature for 1900 created "A Board of State Aid and Charities," with authority to supervise all institutions receiving aid from the state.

State Conferences of Charities.— A state conference of charities has been organized in Virginia, under the leadership of Dr. William F. Drewry, of Petersburg.

Children.— A "National Junior Republic" has been organized at Washington. Maryland passed a law providing that institutions to which children are committed shall have parental authority, with the right to place such children in homes at their discretion, subject to visitation twice a year. Virginia has recently established a reformatory for colored youths near Richmond, similar to the reformatory for white youths recently built. West Virginia proposes to separate the institutions for the deaf and blind. The Children's Home Society in West Virginia has a state charter. Louisville is the first Southern city to have a colored kindergarten. As a result, a normal class for young colored women has been established. The North Carolina State Board is urging the establishment of an institution for feeble-minded children. The South Carolina General Assembly has designated one of its state farms to be used as a reformatory for boys. The Episcopalians maintain a reformatory for colored boys, near Columbia, S.C., known as a rescue mission for outcast boys. The Atlanta State Federation of Women's Associations is endeavoring to secure the establishment of a reformatory for youthful criminals. The Alabama Industrial Farm for White Boys was established by the last legislature, and a small appropriation was made. Mrs. R. D. Johnston, by personal appeal, has obtained money, land, and building material from private individuals.

The Insane.— Maryland county almshouses have been given authority to commit insane persons to public institutions without action of the court. The supervisors of city charities in Baltimore have like authority. North Carolina has many insane in jails. The Board of Charities has made an appeal for adequate state provision, which will probably be made by the coming legislature. South Carolina

has some insane patients in almshouses and jails. Alabama still leads the Southern states in suitable provision for the insane.

Epileptics.— No Southern state has yet made separate provision for epileptics.

Penology.— The Kentucky state prison is reported as self-sustaining. North Carolina reports: "We take reports twice a year from the jails and police stations, but they are not to be relied upon. Where negro jailers are serving, *records are not kept* in most cases; and this is true in some white jails." The New Orleans Board of Commissioners and Almshouses have recommended radical reforms in the buildings and administration of public prisons.

The Western States and Territories.

State Conferences of Charities.— The Pacific Coast Conference of Charities is to be organized at San Francisco in January, 1901.

Children.— The Colorado State Home and Industrial School for Girls is to be removed from the city of Denver to a farm of forty acres, seven miles from the city. The colored people of Colorado have established a private orphanage and home for aged colored people at Petersborough. There are five institutions for orphan Indian children in Indian Territory, Mr. Thomas Kearns has given $50,000 for the "Kearns Orphanage" at Salt Lake City. The New Mexico Children's Home has been discontinued from lack of appropriations.

The Insane.— The governor of Alaska has been authorized to contract with the state asylums for the care of insane patients. Indian Territory has no insane hospital. The secretary says: "I have heard but little about the care of the insane. Have known but one case that was troublesome. That was sadly neglected."

Penology.— The indeterminate sentence and parole law of Colorado went into effect June, 1899. Sixty prisoners have been paroled.

Miscellaneous.

Colorado shows extraordinary activity in the creation of private institutions. They include a national home for consumptive soldiers, the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives, a sanatorium for nervous diseases, a deaconess' hospital at Colorado Springs, a colored

orphanage, a new building for St. Joseph's Hospital at Denver, a consumptive hospital at Boulder, a Florence Crittenden Home at North Denver.

The people of Utah gave more than $100,000 for the sufferers of the mining disaster at Scofield.

Mexico.

Dr. Plutarco Ornelas, Mexican consul at San Antonio, Tex., official delegate from the Republic of Mexico, presented an elaborate and interesting report on Liberty and Charities in Mexico.

Children.— The public schools contain 803,656 children. Mexico has numerous institutions for children, of which perhaps the most interesting is the school of trades, established in 1852. There is a correctional school at San Luis Potosi, and in Coahuila there is a correctional school of arts and trades.

The Insane.— The Republic of Mexico maintains an insane asylum for men and an insane asylum for women.

Hospitals for the Sick.— There are numerous hospitals for the sick, the state of Pueblo alone having 15 hospitals, the state of Guanajuato 38, the state of Mexico 16, and the other states a smaller number.

Penology.— Considerable progress has been made in prison reform. The new penitentiary is reported by visitors from the United States to be one of the best planned prisons on this continent.

Canada.

The elaborate report of Mrs. Willoughby Cummings on the care of infirm and aged poor in the different provinces of Canada is a very interesting study, made under the direction of the standing committee of the National Council of Women of Canada. The report is attracting the attention of the provincial governments. It is not possible to summarize it, but it will repay a careful examination.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

Hastings H. Hart,
Amos W. Butler,
Charles P. Kellogg,
Committee.

REPORTS OF STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES.

ALABAMA.

BY MISS JULIA S. TUTWILER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Our legislature meets biennially, therefore there has been no legislation since the last report. The most important event in the way of charitable organization is the establishing of a reformatory for white boys. The women's clubs of the state have taken great interest in this work, and have given liberally toward it. Its inception is due to one earnest woman, Mrs. R. D. Johnston. The legislature made a small appropriation, and Mrs. Johnston by personal appeal has obtained donations of land, material for building, and much money from private individuals. The building is almost completed, and the superintendent has been appointed. It is to be called the Alabama Industrial Farm for White Boys.

No public institution in the state has been so wisely managed as the Hospital for the Insane. From other states and other countries experts have come to study its methods. Its control has never been under the rule of politicians. The first superintendent held his place until his death, and the second will probably do the same. All parties agree in praising this institution.

Delinquents.

I extract from the late speech of Governor Johnston before the Race Conference which met in Montgomery the following information: —

The records show that 89 per cent. of all our convicts are negroes, while they constitute scarcely 45 per cent. of our population. We have now confined in the penitentiary or at hard labor: White, men, 251; women, 2; total, 253. Colored, men, 2,038; women, 109; total, 2,147.

Of these, 193 white and 1,567 colored are state convicts for the most serious offences.

For murder and manslaughter there are: White, men, 58; women, 1; total, 59. Colored, men, 345; women, 21; total, 366.

For rape: White, men, 3. Colored, men, 40; women, 1; total, 41.

For arson: White, men, 3. Colored, men, 34; women, 4; total, 38.

For forgery: White, men, 7. Colored, men, 41; women, 1; total, 42.

For burglary: White, men, 34. Colored, men, 427; women, 5; total, 432.

It will be observed that, of the total of 2,147 colored convicts, 925 are confined for serious crimes. On Oct. 1, 1878, there were 654 state convicts against 1,760 now. We have now 1 negro in the penitentiary for each 317 of population and 1 white for each 3,270.

We are, however, making progress. Much of the political distrust and bitterness that existed is disappearing. Industrial education is opening wider fields to the negro and diverting his attention from politics. Little by little they are learning to think for themselves, and are being emancipated from vicious leadership. The negro who accumulates property becomes a conservative citizen, ceases to listen to political agitators, and desires no return of irresponsible and corrupt legislation. The more he accumulates, the greater his interest in the reign of law and the preservation of peace.

The Insane.— (*a*) Number in state institutions, 1,474; (*b*) number in private institutions,— there are no private institutions; (*c*) number in county asylums,— there are no county asylums; (*a*) number in county poorhouses,— unable to find out, there are some, mostly idiots and imbeciles.

Blind and Deaf-mutes.— White: deaf-mute pupils, 65; blind pupils, 82. Colored: deaf-mute pupils, 24; blind pupils, 29. Less than one-half of the deaf-mutes and blind children of the state are sent to the state institution. This is altogether the fault of their parents, as the state provides amply for their instruction and care.

In the case of feeble-minded children I have no reliable data. The census of 1890 was absolutely worthless, so far as it dealt with defectives in this state. From observation I feel safe in saying that there are more feeble-minded persons in the state than there are deaf and blind and insane put together. I am absolutely confident that there are not less than one thousand children between the ages of five and twenty in Alabama who need special training. To my

mind this is a field more important than the education of the deaf and blind, or almost even than the care of the insane.

I attended the Race Conference in Montgomery, and never heard more interesting discussions. Some very foolish propositions were made, and some very wise and sensible ones. My own conclusion was that two measures would do much to solve the race problem: first, a property and educational qualification for suffrage, applicable to all races; second, compulsory education for all, accompanied in every case by manual training. This is almost as good a preventive of criminality as vaccination of small-pox.

In a mining prison which I frequently visit there are about 500 prisoners; and there is only one mechanic,— a house-painter. In ten years there has never been a shoemaker, a tailor, a printer. When asked about carpenters, "There is not a man in this prison who could saw to a straight line," was the reply of the warden.

ALASKA.

BY SHELDON JACKSON, D.D., LL.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Fifty-sixth Congress at its first session made a beginning in providing for the care of the indigent and insane. The governor by virtue of his office is authorized to contract with any state asylum on the Pacific Coast for the care of the insane from Alaska. This is a very decided step in advance, and hereafter I may be able to give the society some statistics.

ARIZONA.

BY HON. N. O. MURPHY, GOVERNOR.

The territorial prison at Yuma consists of a cell house 134 x 65 feet, built of rock and iron; a building of adobe, 167 x 34 feet, with engine-room, boiler-room, and tailor and shoe shops, laundry, bath house, and library; an adobe building containing kitchen and dining-room, 110 x 21 feet. The prison contained 218 convicts June 30, 1899. The expenses were $23,875. The earnings of the prisoners were $2,801.

The territorial insane hospital at Phœnix consists of the main central building of brick and two wings, all two stories, with base-

ment. The main building is 100 x 50 feet. The out-buildings consist of a general dining-room 100 x 40 feet, an engine-house, stables, and shops. Both of these institutions were erected at territorial expense, without aid from the general government. The superintendent of the territorial prison is Herbert Brown. The superintendent of the insane hospital is Dr. J. Miller.

The Indian and Industrial Mission School is maintained by the Presbyterian Home Missionary Society at Tucson.

ARKANSAS.

BY GEORGE THORNBURG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no important charitable or correctional legislation during the year. The Independent Order of Odd Fellows have established a home at Biggsville, Ark.

Destitutes.—In poorhouses, 300; destitute children, 500; sick and injured, 300.

Defectives.— Blind, 200; deaf, 250; feeble-minded, 50.

The Insane.— In state institutions, 500; in county asylums, 20; in poorhouses, 25.

CALIFORNIA.

No report.

COLORADO.

BY MINNIE C. T. LOVE, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no meeting of legislature since last report. The Board of Control of the State Home and Industrial School for Girls in April, 1900, concluded the purchase of forty acres of land, of which fifteen acres are in fruit-bearing trees, and upon which is a fine stone building suitable for a cottage. This property is about seven miles from Denver, and offers a satisfactory beginning for a real home. A cottage with capacity for about 35 girls will be erected during the summer. It is a source of much gratification to the board that

at least this definite beginning has been made to properly care for the state girls, and give them industrial training.

A bill to establish a National Soldiers' and Sailors' Home near Denver, to which old soldiers, suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis, may be sent, has received favorable action in Congress. This home will greatly relieve the Colorado State Home for Soldiers and Sailors.

The National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives was opened in December, 1899, in the building known as the Francis Jacobs Hospital. This is situated in Denver, near the large city park. The conduct of this hospital must stand as one of the noblest charities in the world. Although supported almost entirely by Jewish societies, Gentiles, of whatever color, race, or creed, are admitted upon equal terms with the Hebrews; namely, that they be poor and afflicted with some form of tuberculosis. Donations are accepted from any one, but to the patient everything is absolutely free. It is desirable that only patients in the earlier stages of the disease be sent to Colorado, as advanced cases meet only with disappointment. The term of residence at the hospital is six months. Mr. Samuel Grabfelder of Louisville, Ky., president; Mr. Alfred Muller of Denver, secretary.

Dr. Hubert Work, of Pueblo, has purchased an improved farm near Pueblo for the establishment of a sanatorium for the treatment of nervous diseases, and to receive the overflow from the State Hospital for the Insane, which is sadly overcrowded. Dr. Work has adopted the cottage plan.

Arapahoe County has adopted plans and advertised for bids for a two-story brick hospital ward, which will accommodate 200 patients. It is intended to use this ward as a detention ward for the insane, and also as an overflow ward.

Arapahoe County is also building a cottage at the county farm for consumptives.

The county hospital of El Paso County burned Jan. 20, 1900. Plans for a new modern building have been adopted.

The Deaconess Home Society have purchased property in Colorado Springs, an unused hospital building, and opened a hospital for their work. They have also reopened the Denver Home and one in Pueblo.

A private orphanage and home for aged colored people was established, during the past year, at Petersburgh, near Denver. The

benevolent colored people of the state are supporting it. Mrs. McCowan is the superintendent.

St. Joseph's Hospital Society, Denver, laid the corner-stone in August, 1899, of a large five-story brick addition. Completed and occupied April, 1900.

The Colorado Medical Missionary Association, branch of the Battle Creek Sanatorium, will this year construct a separate building for consumptives in connection with the sanatorium at Boulder. Capacity of cottage, one hundred patients.

The county jails of the state have been much improved, and a number of counties are replacing old ones with modern new ones. Arapahoe County, Denver, and Pueblo have established rock piles in connection with their jails.

The Associated Charities of Colorado Springs, organized in 1899, have united with them all private charities of the city, and benevolent aid committees of secret organizations. They established this year a municipal house with work-test.

The Prisoners' Aid Society of Colorado held its second annual meeting Feb. 11, 1900, and reported 44 men and 2 women helped, 25 given work, 7 sent to homes, 11 disappeared after being helped, 1 returned to jail, and 2 to penitentiary. The society expended $199.30 during the year.

The Children's Home Society of the state is building an orphanage in Denver. The society has established a number of branches throughout the state. A number of private orphanages are springing up in various parts of the state; and the State Board of Charities and Correction will endeavor to secure legislation at the next meeting of the legislature, giving them advisory supervision.

The Florence Crittenden Home Association of Colorado purchased a fine property for a permanent home in 1899 in North Denver. The doors are always open to deserving cases. The home is incorporated among the National Crittenden Homes.

In December, 1899, the Woman's Club of Denver, by a committee from the social science department, founded a social settlement in the "Denver Bottoms." A library, sewing school, night school, playhouse, and lecture course were successfully started. A penny provident fund with one hundred and fifty (150) subscribers is in operation. A committee from this club has, also, in co-operation with others, carried on the Pingree Gardens during the past years with success.

Another committee from the Denver Club is co-operating with the Denver Flower Mission Society to form a visiting nurses' association.

The social science department of the Woman's Club hope to enlarge the work of friendly visiting. The Woman's Lunch Club was organized by a committee from the Woman's Club this year.

The State Board of Charities and Correction have condemned the Brightside Home for boys, under the management of Ralph Field, as being unworthy of support.

The indeterminate sentence and parole law has been in operation in this state since July, 1899; and it is a great satisfaction to report its success. The trial judges fix the sentence, using wise discrimination and judgment. At the present time over 60 have been paroled from the penitentiary, and only 5 have violated the terms of the parole.

The state has provided for the insane, hitherto, but there is a growing sentiment in favor of a modified form of county care in conjunction with state care. No insane are kept in jails or poorhouses.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— In state prison, May 1, 1900, 524, of whom 2 are women. State reformatory, 100 men. Total, 624.

Vicious.— In county jails, May 1, 1900, awaiting trial, 94 males, 4 females; serving sentence, 75 males. Insane in jail, none. Total, 173.

Insubordinates.—Industrial School for Boys, 162. Industrial School for Girls, 44. Total, 206.

B. Destitutes.

Poor in poorhouses.— A few counties have established county homes, relief being given out of county poor fund to dependants, after investigation. Many are given transportation to relatives or former homes in other states. Approximate population of paupers in county institutions, 250. Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, May 1, 1900, 143.

Dependent Children.— State Home for Dependent Children, May 1, 1900, 79. Private orphanages, about 500. In county institutions, none.

Sick and Injured.—30 hospitals in state, nearly all under private auspices, having an average population of 500.

C. Defectives.

Blind and Deaf.— State Institution for Deaf and Blind, May 1, 1900, 122. Nearly every blind or deaf child in the state is receiving education.

Feeble-minded Children.— No provision, either public or private. It is estimated that there are about 250 in the state.

Insane.— (*a*) State Hospital, May 1, 1900, 496; (*b*) Dr. Work's Sanatorium, 75; (*c*) county hospital, Denver, 35; (*d*) in county poor-houses and jails, none. Total, 606.

CONNECTICUT.

BY CHARLES P. KELLOGG, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No session of the state legislature was held during the last year, but certain matters referred to in the last report as still under consideration were decided by the legislature of 1899.

The bill providing for indeterminate sentences for all prisoners committed to the state prison failed of passage, and was put over until the next legislature, being printed with the continued bills.

The bill to provide a supervising agent for the Connecticut School for Boys, who should secure work and homes for boys released on parole from the school, was passed; and the officer began his duties on Sept. 1, 1899. It is early yet to see the full effect of his work; but it is believed that, if conducted with care, it will prove very beneficial to the wards of the school.

The movement to establish a new state hospital for the insane, which was proposed in the last legislature, failed of accomplishment.

The only new institutions that have been established in the state since the last report are the Ardendale Sanatorium, Greenwich, Dr. Rose's Sanatorium in South Windham for the care of mental and nervous diseases, and the Elizabeth Home for old ladies in Winsted. A new building is about completed at the Hartford School for the Deaf for the use of its primary and purely oral departments. New buildings have also been erected for the County Temporary Homes

for children in Windham and Tolland Counties, extensive additions have been made in New London County, and improvements are being made in Hartford County, including the erection of a detached hospital building, increased play-rooms, etc.

The policy of state care of the insane is maintained in Connecticut, all of the insane being cared for at one state hospital at Middletown, except those provided for in the Hartford Retreat and other private institutions, and a number of chronic insane in the town poorhouses. The town or person committing a patient to the state hospital pays $2 per week; and the balance of the cost of board, about 70 cents per week, is paid by the state.

Recent changes in methods of caring for the insane are being adopted in our state hospital, under the direction of the new superintendent, Dr. Charles W. Page, formerly of Danvers, Mass. These consist chiefly in a reorganization of the institution into separate departments for the acute insane, the chronic insane, and the feeble and aged. A pathological laboratory is maintained and a new building is being erected, to cost $75,000, with a large congregate dining-room for a majority of the patients.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— The state prison at Wethersfield, under its new warden, Albert Garvin, is rapidly taking a place among the foremost institutions of this class. Under an appropriation of $125,000 from the last legislature, new buildings are being erected, which will include a new block of cells for male prisoners, a new department for the female prisoners, a large congregate dining-room for all of the male prisoners, — except the sick and insane,— new kitchen, laundry, etc. The average number of prisoners during the year was 507. The jails of the eight counties of the state contained an average of about 1,000 inmates, short-term offenders, and those bound over for trial. Total number of criminals, 1,507. Ratio, 1,890 to the million of population.

The Vicious.— There are no special institutions for this class in Connecticut.

Insubordinates.— At the Connecticut School for Boys, at Meriden, the same defects are still noticeable of a lack of adequate facilities for physical development and for training in the elements of trades.

Better things are hoped for in these directions in the future. Average, 450 boys.

The Industrial School for Girls at Middletown has an average of 250 inmates, and is a model institution, with scientific cooking school, dressmaking classes, and departments of domestic work. Total insubordinates, 700; ratio, 875 to the million.

B. Destitutes.

Poor in Almshouses, etc.— Almshouses are maintained in 89 towns in the state in which the dependent poor of all ages are cared for, except children between four and eighteen. Total number of inmates during the year about 2,600, besides 400 persons cared for in private homes for the aged. Total, 3,000. Ratio, 3,750 to the million. The total number of persons assisted with outdoor relief during the year is estimated at about 12,000. Charity Organization Societies are conducted in six cities in the state, and work in harmony with the municipal authorities.

Destitute Children.— A temporary home is provided in each of the eight counties for the shelter of dependent and neglected children between the ages of four and eighteen until suitable family homes can be found for them. The average number in the county homes was 700. Private asylums and homes furnish accommodations for 900 children. Total, 1,600. Ratio, 2,000 to the million.

The Sick and Injured.— The sick and injured poor are cared for in a number of city hospitals at the expense of the towns that send them and of the state which furnishes appropriations for most of these hospitals. Fitch's Home for Soldiers, at Noroton, has an average of 480 inmates.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— The state has had about 60 blind beneficiaries during the year, of whom 15 are supported at the Perkins Institution, South Boston, and about 45 at the Institute and Industrial Home for the Blind in Hartford. Ratio, 75 to the million.

The Deaf.— The state supported during the last year 114 deaf pupils, of whom 83 were at the American School for the Deaf at Hartford and 31 at the Mystic Oral School. Ratio, 140 to the million.

Feeble-minded Children.— Feeble-minded children are cared for and instructed at state expense at the Connecticut School for Imbeciles, Lakeville. Average number, 180. Ratio, 225 to the million.

The Insane.— The Connecticut Hospital for the Insane at Middletown has had as many as 1,940 inmates during the year; and it is hoped that the new building will relieve its overcrowded condition. The Retreat for the Insane at Hartford has an average of 150 patients. Twelve private sanatoriums care for 300 patients; and there are about 360 others, chiefly chronic cases among the town poor. Total, 2,750. Ratio, 3,435 to the million.

The cost to the state for the delinquent, dependent, and defective classes for the year ending Sept. 30, 1899, was $694,876. The cost to the towns for the year was $770,670. Total, $1,465,546, or an average of $1.83 per capita of the state's population, estimated at 800,000.

DELAWARE.

BY MRS. EMALIA P. WARNER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

A new addition to Delaware Hospital in Wilmington is contemplated. The disastrous fire in Laurel met with generous response from Wilmington Associated Charities and Delaware State Federation of Women's Clubs.

At the State Hospital for the Insane a fine conservatory, cared for by patients, supplied flowers in all wards during the winter. Healthful amusement was furnished. A special building for the colored insane has been planned. Total number of inmates, 300.

Delinquents.

Criminals are confined in three county jails, in idleness and unclassed. Average, about three hundred.

The New Castle County Workhouse is approaching completion. This change will bring a new era in the penal system of Delaware.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important legislation attempted for the District of Columbia during the past year is the bill to create a board of charities, which was reintroduced in both houses of Congress, passed in the House of Representatives, and favorably reported in the Senate. At this point its progress was blocked by influences wielded by one of the private charitable institutions, which fear that under the administration of such a board their special relations with the Congress will meet with greater difficulties than are now encountered. (The bill passed later.)

Another important measure is that for the creation of a municipal hospital. This is also still pending, and its present success is doubtful. Like the board of charities, it is opposed by some of those specially interested in private institutions.

A new organization, which gives promise of becoming a large factor in the creation of a complete system of agencies for the rescue and protection of children, is known as the National Junior Republic. Its object is to receive boys who have been found to be in need of stronger government than that furnished in the homes of their parents, and those without homes, and organize them into a republic, under a constitution following in principle that on which the government of the United States is founded, allow them to make and execute their own laws, under proper advice, and by these and other means teach and fix in their minds the truth that self-control and willing labor are the basis of prosperity and civilization.

The adult blind have been given an opportunity to work for a living in properly equipped workshops instead of begging on the streets.

The insane of the District of Columbia are cared for in the Government Hospital for the Insane, and there is no sentiment noticeable in the community favorable to any change in this regard.

A. Delinquents.

Criminal.— State prison convicts, 403.
Vicious.— Jail and workhouse convicts, 694.

Insubordinates.— In reform schools and industrial reformatory institutions (estimated), 350.

Total delinquents, 1,447.

B. Destitutes.

Almshouse inmates, 232. Dependent children, 827. In hospitals, 586. Total dependants, 1,645.

C. Defectives.

Blind, 28. Deaf-mutes, 25. Feeble-minded, 46. The insane, 972. Total, 1,071.

Probably the number included above under group B is much below the real number of persons who are receiving indoor relief. The conditions under which they are received and maintained preclude the possibility of securing accurate reports concerning them. Not all of the children included are wholly dependent. Many hospital patients also contribute toward the expense of their maintenance. There are no insane in private asylums or in the almshouse.

FLORIDA.

BY REV. JOHN A. HUGHES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the past two years progress has been made in caring for the delinquents and unfortunates. A commission was appointed to inquire into and correct the abuses of our convict camps. The work accomplished is very gratifying, yet still leaving much to be done.

I visited personally the State Institute for Blind and Deaf at St. Augustine. The school contained 42 whites and 20 negroes. The expenses were $9,215. The new State Reform School has been opened only a few months. It contained at last report only 11 inmates. No official report has yet been printed. When the legislature meets, I shall try to get a law passed to classify the unfortunates. I shall try to have Florida in line next year. I desire to interest the state at large in the work of the National Conference.

GEORGIA.

BY MRS. NELLIE PETERS BLACK, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE FROM ATLANTA.

Atlanta has a very fine system of charities, which are supervised by women and are conducted on strictly modern principles. These are represented by the following associations: the Home for the Friendless; Florence Crittenden Home; the children's ward of the Grady Hospital; Sheltering Arms; Day Nursery; Woman's Co-operative Home; Free Kindergarten Association, three schools; Hebrew Benevolent Home; Young Men's Christian Association Auxiliary; Young Women's Christian Association Auxiliary.

With the Methodist Orphans' Home near by at Decatur, and the Baptist Orphans' Home at Hopeville, ten miles from here, I do not believe more faithful and unselfish work is done anywhere, or more effective, than the Atlanta women do. The workers are from the highest circles of society, as well as from the simpler walks of life. The city gives municipal aid to a few of these charities. They are all non-sectarian, except the two last named; and they, like the others, receive inmates from all denominations, irrespective of creed. We are all united as a body, through the City Federation of Women's Associations, in the effort to have a reformatory for the youthful criminals of Fulton County. The question is before the voters to-day.

IDAHO.

No report.

ILLINOIS.

No report.

INDIANA.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

During the past year the state institutions have been building additions and making improvements or extensive repairs from the

grants made by the last legislature. The Southern Hospital for Insane has built a wing, to accommodate 163 additional patients. In addition, an assembly hall has been erected, and an addition built to the boiler-house. The Eastern Hospital for Insane has completed a cold storage plant and a new building for men, with a capacity of 58. Two infirmary buildings are under erection, one for men, the other for women, to accommodate thirty beds each. The Northern Hospital for Insane has under construction two buildings for men and women, to accommodate 100 patients each. The Central Hospital for Insane has been provided with Binder fire-escapes. Two dining-rooms for men are practically completed. Another dining-room for women, and a hospital for the sick with a capacity of 100, will be erected. When these are completed, it is designed to accommodate 205 additional patients. The total increase in the number of insane that can be cared for when these additions shall have been made will be 686. The Indiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf has erected a residence for the superintendent. The rooms heretofore used by him have been rearranged, so as to provide additional accommodation for about 40 scholars. The School for Feeble-minded Youth at Fort Wayne has practically completed a cottage for girls, known as Sunset Cottage, which will accommodate 100. There have been received into this school, preparatory to their occupying this cottage, all the feeble-minded girls upon the waiting list. The present summer a building will be erected upon the farm designed to accommodate 100 boys; and it is thought by January 1 next that almost all the boys for whom application has been made for admission can be received. At the Soldiers' Home a beautiful residence, of colonial design, has been erected for the commandant, and a neat dwelling for the surgeon. Work upon the construction of a new cell house at the Reformatory was begun last fall. It will contain 600 cells.

The Odd Fellows' Home at Greensburg has been completed, and is now occupied. This institution is designed to afford a home for indigent Odd Fellows, their widows and orphans. Generally among the orphans' homes there has been increased sentiment favorable to the placement of children in good families. As a result of active effort in placing children, some of the county orphans' homes have been closed, and in others the numbers have run so low that consideration has been given to closing some of

them. The state agents of the Board of State Charities placed 164 children in family homes during the fiscal year ending Oct. 31, 1899. The Boards of Children's Guardians in Vanderburgh and Allen Counties have begun work with good results. Marion County, in which is located the city of Indianapolis, has erected an asylum, capacity 150, in which to place the insane who are now in the poor asylum and cannot be admitted to one of the state hospitals. The movement in favor of a proper organization of the charity societies is spreading among the smaller cities of the state. Muncie has organized a new Charity Organization Society. The last legislature enacted a new law for outdoor poor relief. In this, so far as seemed wise, charity organization methods are required of the overseer of the poor. Although the law was in operation only a portion of last year, there has been a lessening of 10,000 in the number of persons receiving relief, and a decrease of $54,000 in the amount of relief given. This is believed to be largely due to the law referred to.

The policy of Indiana is to provide state care for all of its insane. Unfortunately, this has not been fully carried out; but the sentiment of the state is decidedly in favor of such action.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— Jan. 31, 1900, state prison, 768; Indiana Reformatory, 918; women's prison, 56. Total, 1,742.

The Vicious.— Oct. 31, 1899, county jails, 720 men, 51 women. Total, 771; Marion County Workhouse, 110. There are 206 town and city lockups in the state. We have no record of their population.

Insubordinates.— Jan. 31, 1900, in the Reform School for Boys, 579; out on "ticket-of-leave," 53. In the Industrial School for Girls, 249; out on "ticket-of-leave," 65.

B. Destitutes.

The Poor in Poorhouses.— Aug. 31, 1899, 3,133; in the Soldiers' Home, Jan. 31, 1900, 582.

Dependent Children.— In the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Jan. 31, 1900, 634; county orphans' homes Oct. 31, 1899, 1,605; in county poor asylums, Oct. 31, 1899, 80.

The Sick and Injured.— There are 26 hospitals in the state. We have no statistics regarding the number of patients.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— Institution for the Blind, Jan. 31, 1900, 139; in county poor asylums, Aug. 31, 1899, 161.

Deaf-mutes.— Institution for the Deaf, Jan. 31, 1900, 328; in county poor asylums, Aug. 31, 1899, 53.

Feeble-minded Children.— School for Feeble-minded Youth, Jan. 31, 1900, 573.

The Insane.— Total enrolled population of the four insane hospitals Jan. 31, 1900, 3,567; in the county poor asylums, Aug. 31, 1899, 463; in county jails, Oct. 31, 1899, 72. According to the best figures available, there were in round numbers 1,100 persons not cared for in any insane hospital or asylum. Most of these will soon be received at the state hospitals.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

BY E. H. RISHEL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Indian Territory has no general legislative body; and the several tribal governments have made agreements with the United States Government, whereby it is expected that in a few years the tribal governments shall be done away.

No legislation has come under my observation.

I know of no charitable organizations other than those reported last year.

I have heard but little about the care of the insane. Have known but one case of insanity that was troublesome. That was sadly neglected.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— Our jails have been very much crowded, and in some instances sickness and death have followed close confinement. The officers are considered good men, and faithful in the discharge of their duties.

B. Destitutes.

We have no poorhouses in the territory. The very poor are frequently helped by the more fortunate; and the poorest natives often secure a written statement of their disability, and present this paper to others as evidence of their need of help.

There are numerous boarding-schools for orphan children of Indian blood, supported by the various tribes. There is also the Whittaker Orphan School for whites at Pryor Creek in the Cherokee Nation. The Cherokee Orphan School at Tahlequah, Ind. Ter.; the Creek Orphan School at Okmucgee, Ind. Ter.; the Armstrong Academy for orphan boys at Academy, Ind. Ter.; the Wheelock Academy for orphan girls at Garvin, Ind. Ter.; and the Atoka Baptist Academy, at which 50 Choctaw orphans are cared for at Atoka, Ind. Ter.,— are the ones best known to me.

An effort was made three years ago to establish a school for the blind at Fort Gibson, Ind. Ter.; but I have heard nothing of the enterprise of late. There are also some orphan schools in the Chickasaw Nation, but I cannot now give the address. Support has been secured for one or two Indian blind or deaf children in state institutions elsewhere.

IOWA.

The legislature of 1899 passed a law providing for the establishment of a reformatory for women at Anamosa. The bill appropriated $5,000 for its establishment. The building is situated near the Anamosa prison, and the reformatory will be under the charge of a matron at a salary of $1,000 per year. Male guards may be employed, if necessary. Inmates may be paroled or admitted to the institution by the State Board of Control.

The abolishment of the Industrial Home for the Adult Blind at Knoxville was determined upon. It had about 50 inmates, who were given transportation home and $25 bonus.

Train robbery or attempted train robbery was made punishable by life imprisonment or any term from ten years up.

The work of the State Board of Control continues to give general satisfaction to the people of the state.

KANSAS.

BY F. W. BLACKMAR, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Kansas is not quite half a century old, and, though thrifty and vigorous, has not the accumulated wealth of older states. In a new state the first half-century is usually one of enormous expense. School-houses, court-houses, penitentiaries, asylums, roads, bridges, railroads, etc., must be constructed in a short period. In charitable and penal institutions, Kansas has already laid good foundations, and, considering the enormous demands upon her resources, has done remarkably well. But with these foundations laid, with the recent progress in wealth, and the prosperous condition of the state to-day, the time is propitious for making a vigorous move forward in the equipment and management of her charitable and penal institutions. And without doubt this will be done.

Somewhat isolated, Kansas has lacked somewhat in the influence of close contact with states which have made more rapid advancement. Also, in the settlement of a new state, owing to the shifting population from all parts of the world, in all conditions of health and prosperity, there has been, in the short struggle of settlement, a great deal of social wreckage. There are few private institutions in a new state. Therefore, there is an excessive burden laid upon the government of a new state in the care of her wards.

Kansas has not had adequate equipment for the handling of such people, but recent improvements in these lines seem to indicate that we have reached a new era. In the legislature, in 1899, a bill was introduced for the entire reconstruction of the charitable and penal institutions of the state. It contained many good features, but failed to pass the legislature and become a law, much to the regret of many earnest workers in the cause of charity. For it is urged that there is at present a necessity for the reorganization of the administration of charities and corrections. The methods in use at present are too clumsy for effective work. If the State Board of Charities was abolished, and each local board of trustees for the government of separate institutions were done away with, and the reform schools, the reformatory, and the penitentiary put under a board fully competent for the management of these three institutions (who would devote most of their lives to the work of management, co-operating with the warden

of the penitentiary, the superintendents of the reform schools and the reformatory), a better quality of work would be done, at less expense to the state. In such case, superintendents and warden should have special adaptability and preparation for their work, and should have large appointive and administrative power. On the other hand, all of the charitable institutions, including those for the blind, imbeciles, deaf, etc., should be classified in another group, and for their control another board created for these institutions, similar to that for the correctional. Such a system would be more conducive to careful supervision and careful work, and would tend to do away with the clumsy processes of the present machinery. Our present governor, Hon. William E. Stanley, has apparently observed the cumbrous methods of administration of these institutions, and has instituted a systematic personal visitation, which has a great tendency to tone up and improve the system. He has also inaugurated a movement in the right direction in regard to the conditional pardon of prisoners, which amounts quite to a plan of parole, in which prisoners are allowed three years of trial, with monthly reports to the authorities, similar to the plan practised in the Elmira Reformatory. The governor holds that, if a man is reformed, which, according to the New York law, means a reasonable probability that he will not commit crime, he is better out in the world earning his own way than being shut up at the expense of the state. Governor Stanley, in his inaugural address, pointed out the needs of improvement in the management of charitable and penal institutions, and has followed this up with a vigorous campaign which deserves great credit. To my mind, it is the most important move that has recently been made in this phase of government. Progress at the penitentiary has not been very great the last ten years. There has been a great lack of classification of criminals and prisoners. It was thought that the Hutchinson Reformatory would render this easy, but there seems to be no intelligent plan for the classification of criminals which is adequate to meet the conditions. A reform in the administrative machinery, such as I have mentioned before, would in all probability facilitate this.

Among the small improvements which might be mentioned within the penitentiary was the removal of the stripes, by the last warden, and the establishment of a closer sympathy between the warden and the prisoners. Both of the changes have had a good effect in prison discipline. Under the present administration there has been a ten-

dency to furnish better food and equipment. This is a move in the right direction. If any criticism were offered in general for the management of the prison in recent years, it would be that in seeking to make a good financial return to the state the highest order of all prison management has not been reached. The Kansas penitentiary has practically paid its own way outside of the appropriations for permanent improvements. In trying to make a good financial showing, many small improvements have been neglected, and the reform element has been passed over too lightly.

The writer believes in thorough discipline; in punishment where necessary; in systematic and perpetual labor; and has no sympathy with the idea that the penitentiary should be made an easy place for prisoners. Nevertheless, it appears that too much stress has been placed upon the money-earning power of the penitentiary and too little on the reform element. There is a tendency to do away with all contract labor in the penitentiary. The coal mines owned by the state have furnished means for the direct employment of prisoners by the present management. At the last legislature $150,000 was appropriated for the erection and maintenance of a hard-fibre twine plant. This now is in full operation, and gives another opportunity for the state to employ its own prisoners. The labor unions are wrong in opposing prison-made goods; for labor is necessary to discipline, and tax-payers who build and equip prisons by their means have a right to demand that, so far as is consistent with the interests of the public good, such institutions shall be self-supporting.

The building of a brick plant at the state penitentiary adds another industry to those already established. The entire annual appropriation for the running expenses of the penitentiary was $154,351, and $150,000 for the twine plant.

The Reform school at Topeka has been overcrowded for a number of years; and it is not uncommon for boys sent to the Reform School to be kept in jail on account of lack of room. The regular appropriation per annum for 1900–01, for current expenses, was $63,154. Perhaps the greatest criticism on the Reform School is its lack of equipment for industrial training. With this completed, and an enlarged capacity, there will be an opportunity to reform boys as well as to keep them in custody.

The Industrial Reformatory at Hutchinson is comparatively a new institution. It is only partially completed, although the last legisla-

ture appropriated $77,500 for the erection of new buildings; also, $32,375 for supplies and repairs; in addition, the salaries, $25,440 per annum. As to the management of the Industrial Reformatory, it has started out well, although the difficulty of ascertaining what prisoners should be sent here, and the method of their detention, are somewhat in question. If, as suggested elsewhere, it were put under the same management as the penitentiary, little difficulty would be had in regard to this.

The Industrial School for Girls at Beloit is the fourth great branch of correctional institutions. Besides appropriating $24,410 for salaries and general maintenance for each of the fiscal years 1900–01, the legislature made an appropriation for the construction of a detached cottage to the amount of $2,500. The same legislature provided for the establishment of an industrial school at Quindare for colored children, and appropriated $5,000 for the running expenses for two years. It is difficult to say what will be the outcome of this school. The appropriation was made with the understanding that fifteen acres of ground would be deeded to the state of Kansas by the Western University on condition that the industrial school would be placed there.

Among the most important institutions of Kansas are the insane asylums at Osawatomie and Topeka. These institutions have been overcrowded for years, and with liberal appropriations by the state the facilities would not allow the best care of the insane. We would not reflect upon those who have struggled to give faithful service in this direction, but rather point out the lack of equipment. Besides the annual appropriation for salaries and maintenance of $151,594, the sum of $50,000 was appropriated for the erection of a hospital for the sick at the state insane asylum at Osawatomie. This is a movement in the right direction, as it gives a fully equipped hospital with modern sanitary conveniences, detached from the main confinement wards. This appropriation also includes the construction of a laundry building separate from the other buildings. The state insane asylum at Topeka received in appropriation the sum of $138,310 for annual expenses. Also $30,000 was appropriated for the erection of an administration building. In addition to this greater provisions were made for the insane by appropriating $100,000 for the erection and equipment of an insane asylum to be located at a place to be determined by a committee. Said location was finally made at Parsons.

This will relieve the overcrowded condition of the institutions, and enable the various insane subjects that are located in various counties to be placed in a suitable asylum. The state also had the burden of reimbursing the sum of $221,951.90 to various counties for the care of destitute insane prior to Jan. 1, 1899. Appropriations for the current expenses for the institutions for the deaf and dumb at Olathe for the years 1900–01 amount to $46,000 per annum.

The Soldiers' Orphans' Home, which now is a state institution, has prepared for no improvements. The amount appropriated for running expenses was $34,980 for each of the years 1900–01.

The Institution for the Education of the Blind at Kansas City, Kan., received an appropriation of $24,800 per annum for running expenses and repairs.

The appropriation for current expenses and maintenance of the Asylum for Idiotic and Imbeciles amounted to $37,726 per annum, with allowance for extraordinary support of $13,500 in addition to an appropriation of $40,000 for the erection of a new building. This is a subject that needs much attention in Kansas. The asylum has only 204 inmates, while the census of 1890 reported 2,000, including epileptics in the state. Some are in the county houses, and others are widely scattered.

But there are other institutions receiving aid by state appropriation, such as $700 per annum for the Old Ladies' Rest, Leavenworth; St. Francis Hospital, Wichita, $700; Wichita Hospital and Training School for Nurses, $700; Wichita Children's Home, $700; Kansas Protective Home Association, Leavenworth, $700; Kansas Children's Home Society, Topeka, $700; Mercy Hospital, Fort Scott, $700; Christ Hospital, Topeka, $700; Topeka Orphans' Home, $700; St. Margaret's Hospital, Kansas City, $700; Bethany Hospital, Kansas City, $700; Rescue Home, Kansas City, $700; Pittsburg Hospital, $700; Home of the Friendless, Parsons, $700; St. Vincent's Orphans' Asylum, Leavenworth, $700; a total of $10,500, or $21,000 for the bi-annum. Also for the maintenance of the State Board of Charities, $8,500; and for other trustees of charitable and penal institutions $5,900. In most of these cases, if not all, Kansas is unwisely liberal. It would be better if the state would grant no aid to institutions not under its control. It is a policy that has been abandoned by the federal government and by most states.

It is easy to observe that, while the population of Kansas has de-

creased in the last ten years, better provision for the inmates of the charitable institutions goes on. The difficulty is to determine whether there is an increase of dependants and defectives in proportion to the population or not, or whether a better administration has a tendency to do more each year for the various institutions.

The Poor-farms or County Almshouses.— The provision for a county house or county farm for the support and maintenance of the destitute of each county led to the establishment of said farms in the greater majority of the counties. The ideal notion is that persons who through misfortune have reached a destitute and helpless state should find a home where they could be supported in comfort. Properly, the poor-farm or poorhouse represents a place where various broken down elements of society are herded together for a long or short time. In most instances they are turned in here without classification. Many are sick without hospital care, many are insane without proper treatment, many are idiotic without the special care that such require, many are children who do not have proper school facilities. There are 77 counties in Kansas that have poor-farms. The aggregate expense in 1899 was $135,403.02, and the total revenue was $32,618.22, or a net total expense of $105,440.47. It is not supposed that the income would equal the expense on these farms; yet, when we consider that there are only 1,595 inmates of the 77 poorhouses, and that these were there only a part of the time, it would seem like a very large expense for their maintenance. Of this number, 190 were there on account of protracted illness, and 494 from mental and physical defects; and it would seem that the poorhouse had been either a hospital or a convalescent house more than anything else.

This brings up one of the deficiencies of the Western country,— a lack of hospitals. Just now our people are beginning to recognize this deficiency, and are preparing to meet it. In trying to find out the income and expenditure of poor-farms, it is found that there is very poor book-keeping, scarcely any system, so that the expense of management has become largely that of guess-work. The different ways of management are as follows: the superintendent is paid a salary, the expense of keeping the inmates is paid by the county; second, the farm is rented for cash or crop rent, and the superintendent paid a given rate each week for each inmate; third, the superintendent has all the income from the farm, and in addition is paid a

given rate for each inmate. Perhaps of these three the first is the least objectionable, although it would require very careful management to show good returns; and the last two are simply abominable methods of business. There are many other important characteristics of the county poor-farms of note. First, not sufficient care is had in many instances concerning sanitation, filth and uncleanliness abounding in many instances. It is quite notable that on 33 county poor-farms heard from in regard to inmates, there are 99 imbeciles. Of these 9 are under age; insane, 19; vagrants, 20; had been petty thieves, 5; children under five years, 20; between five and ten years, 18; between ten and fifteen, 15; or in all a total of 53 children. The abomination of turning all these classes of people together, some having no care at all, and nearly all requiring scientific treatment, is easily observed by any one who will take the trouble to think of it for a moment.

What is needed is an entire renovation of this subject, that the worthy poor, especially the aged, may be carefully treated, and where the defectives may be classified and placed in their proper institutions. In these 77 counties, where the net expense of maintenance was $135,403.02, there was reported outside relief to the amount of $209,152.67. This also unearths another defect of our charitable system; namely, the doling out of money by mayors of cities and township trustees to people, whereby each township seeks to get its share of the poor funds, and the county officials in some instances use the funds for the support of the poor in making votes for the next election. The whole tendency of the system at present is to increase pauperism and encourage crime, and the whole matter should be carefully sifted. Perhaps this is one of the greatest causes for the increase of pauperism in the rural districts.

County and City Jails.— Many of these jails have no inmates or very few; and, where they have a considerable number, there is also great lack of care in the classification of criminals. We should create modern jails for the detention of prisoners, so that each could be kept separate. A system of employment should also be established, so that those in detention should not grow worse, but better. Great care also should be taken to study criminal statistics of the various counties, to ascertain the causes, and then to work remedial measures for their improvement. I give herewith a statement of the study made by one of my students of sociology, J. C. Ruppenthall, of Russell, Kan.: —

Russell County, Kansas, Criminal Statistics 1897–98.

Russell County lies a little north and west of the centre of the state. Her industries are purely agricultural. There are no towns of over 250 inhabitants, except the county seat, Russell, which has upward of 1,000.

Population, 1897, 7,288; population, 1898, 7,366.

Number of criminal complaints, 1897–98, 90: charged with felony, 22; charged with misdemeanors, 68.

Outcome of 90 complaints: persons convicted, 36; persons acquitted, 7; persons fled from county, 9; complaints dismissed, 36; jury hung, case dismissed, 2.

Punishment of 36 convicted: penitentiary, 1; boys' reformatory, 2; boys' reform school, 1; jail, 4; fine, 27; placed under bond, 1.

Nature of offence: against person or public peace, 41; grand and petit larceny, 18; sale of intoxicants, 14; injury to property, 10; hunting game out of season, 4; disturbing elections, 1; refusing to give return stock-pass on railroad, 1; neglect of official duty, 1.

Cause of crime (judged by condition offender was in at time commission of the offence or otherwise): unknown, 45; use of liquor, 25; sale of liquor, 14; doubtful, 6.*

Sex of defendants: male, 88; female, 2,

Age of defendants: adults, 68; minors, 9; unknown, 13.

Personal habits of defendants: use intoxicants as a beverage, 49; total abstainers, 6; not determinable, 35.

Number of different persons defendant, 73: number of defendants counted once, 63, makes 63 complaints; number of defendants counted twice, 6, makes 12 complaints; number of defendants counted thrice, 3, makes 9 complaints; number of defendants counted 6 times, 1, makes 6 complaints.

The above statistics were made by me from facts in my personal knowledge. Every case was under my personal supervision. Every fact of which I was not certain is classified as "doubtful," "unknown," or "indeterminate," etc. The time of said complaints extends only over the years 1897–98, during my term of office as county attorney.

J. C. Ruppenthal.

* In the doubtful list are placed all defendants of whom it is not certain that they severally had been drinking intoxicants before or at the time of the commission of the crime charged.

The following is a statement of the inmates of the several institutions May 1st, 1900: —

Correctional and Penal.— State penitentiary, Lansing, 988 (of this number 207 are Oklahoma prisoners, 1 federal military, and 3 federal civil, leaving for Kansas 779); Industrial Reformatory, Hutchinson, 220; Industrial School for Girls, Beloit, 116; Reform School, Topeka, 180.

Charitable and Educational.— Insane Asylum, Osawatomie, ——; Insane Asylum, Topeka, 850; Institute for the Education of the Blind, Kansas City, Kan., 85; Idiotic and Imbecile Asylum, Winfield, 204; School for the Deaf and Dumb, Olathe, 250; Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Atchison, 134.

In comparison of Kansas with other states of the Union in buildings, equipment, and management of charitable and correctional institutions, the state, though inferior to a few of the more progressive states, keeps pace with others, and in many cases exceeds them. Kansas institutions are above the average.

KENTUCKY.

BY MISS EMMA A. GALLAGHER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Owing to the disturbed state of politics at the time of the recent meeting of our legislature, the session closed amid such confusion that it remains uncertain as to whether any measures were adopted.

The Charity Organization Society of Lexington, which was discontinued for several years, was reorganized in March. An experienced agent of the Louisville organization spent several weeks in Lexington, training the workers and moulding the public mind along true charity organization principles.

Women's clubs have been very active along various lines of work. Playgrounds have been opened by them on large vacant lots, where the children of the poor enjoy games prepared for their delight. A Christian Endeavor Children's Home was opened at an ideal spot, far from the cities' hot and crowded districts, where poor and feeble children can, for two weeks at a time, enjoy bright sunshine, cooling shade, and breathe pure, health-giving air. Travelling libraries and social settlements have become elevating factors in the mountain counties. The work taken up last year has greatly increased in use-

fulness. Louisville was the first Southern city to have colored kindergartens. Here the success has been so marked that an outgrowth of the work is a normal class to train young colored women for kindergarten teachers.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— In the two prisons of the state on Dec. 1, 1898, there were 1,838 in confinement. Received during the year, 504. Left in prison, Nov. 30, 1899, 1,685 convicts. The commissioners report the Frankfort penitentiary as self-sustaining.

The Vicious.—As far as ascertained, in workhouses, 2,643.

Insubordinates.—In October, 1899, the governor issued a proclamation opening the State Reform Schools at Lexington, one for boys and one for girls. The situation is a fine one, a large fertile farm a few miles from the city. There are 80 boys in the school, the greater number having been removed from the penitentiaries. The institution is still in its formative stages. The Industrial School of Reform in Louisville averages total inmates, 450.

B. Destitutes.

The Poor in Poorhouses.— This class numbers about 1,000.

Destitute Children.— Cared for in orphanages and homes, available statistics, about 900.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— There is no blind asylum in the state. In the care of the Kentucky Institute for the Education of Blind Children, the white department had 103 children; the colored department 21,— in all 124 during the past year.

Deaf-mutes.— The biennial report of the Kentucky Institute for Deaf-mutes, ending Oct. 31, 1899, shows a total enrolment of pupils to be 455. The superintendent strongly advocates a compulsory education law, that every deaf child of this state may have the advantage of free education.

Feeble-minded Children.—No report.

The Insane.—The three insane asylums at the beginning of their last fiscal year had a combined population of 2,734 patients. Admitted during the year, 850, making a total under treatment of 3,584. Sept. 30, 1899, patients remaining, 2,870.

LOUISIANA.

BY MICHEL HEYMAN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We had no meeting of our legislature last year. No new institutions have been created. Public sentiment favors the system of state care for the insane.

The following facts are taken from the third annual report of the board of commissioners and asylums of New Orleans: —

The city of New Orleans expends annually about $450,000, almost half of its revenue, in maintaining prisons, police, criminal justice, care of the poor and insane, orphans, aged and infirm. During the past twelve months about 4,000 prisoners have crossed the threshold of our parish prison and police jail, and about 4,400 orphans and poor have been cared for. The parish prison, police jail, and Boys' Reformatory, maintenance has cost $96,150, and the asylums and almshouse $37,610.

Our prisons and the care of prisoners are based on antiquated ideas, which have long been discarded by most communities. Work should be provided. Our charitable institutions, except in a few instances, are places merely to house, feed, and incompletely educate children, without teaching them trades or professions.

The report of the commission criticises freely and intelligently the correctional and charitable institutions, giving due credit for the efforts toward improvement made by the managers, but urging the necessity for radical changes of buildings and administration for many of them. The report says: "Of eleven police stations, only four are in comparatively fair condition. The others are badly ventilated, damp, and some not fit to confine prisoners over night. . . . The management of the Shakespeare Almshouse is not commended. There seems to be a lack of thrift and an evidence of want of care about the premises and in the appearance of the inmates."

In closing the report, the board makes "a plea, a demand, in behalf of the indigent insane in this city, and a vigorous protest against the manner of caring for these miserable, unfortunate, and helpless creatures.

MAINE.

BY MRS. L. M. N. STEVENS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We have had no session of the legislature the past winter. There are no new institutions. I think there is a tendency to improve existing ones.

MARYLAND.

BY MISS KATE M. McLANE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature for 1900 passed some very important laws relating to charitable and correctional matters. The most important was an act creating a "Board of State Aid and Charities," consisting of five members, to be appointed biennially in the month of April by the governor, by and with the consent of the Senate. Hereafter any institution or incorporated body, whether municipal, county, educational, military, charitable, penal, etc., which proposes to ask for a state appropriation, must file with the board at least six months before each biennial session of the legislature a written application, stating the amount to be asked for and the purposes for which it will be used. The board has power to visit, inspect, and investigate the management of all institutions or corporations applying for state aid, and is required to report within ten days after the legislature meets what institutions should, in the board's judgment, receive state money, and what amounts should be given to each one, with the board's reasons for its recommendations. It must also give its reasons when advising against state aid. The board is authorized to pay a secretary $1,200 a year, to rent offices in Baltimore City ($600 annually), and to expend for travelling expenses for members and secretary up to $500 a year. $5,000 was appropriated for expenses of commission for the years 1900–01. The majority of the five members just appointed by the governor suggests selection from a political rather than a business or philanthropic standpoint; but the president, Hon. F. C. Latrobe, was the author of the bill, the great need for which was impressed on him as chairman of the House Committee on Ways and Means, and it is hoped that the new board will at least introduce some principle into the distribution of state money by future legislators. The custom in Maryland hereto-

fore has been for the legislature to make appropriations for charitable and other institutions in lump sum, without any regard to the legitimate claims, the real needs, or the relative importance of the applicants. Two other legislative enactments show the growth of public opinion, in favor of state inspection where state money is received. The state auditor's bill authorizes the governor to appoint an auditor, who shall be a trained accountant, to examine the accounts of all associations receiving state funds. Another law requires all bodies receiving state aid to file annual reports of receipts and disbursements with the state comptroller.

By a new act the laws regulating the commitment and care of insane persons were so amended that the county commissioners of the counties and the supervisors of city charities of Baltimore City may determine whether a person is a public charge instead of a court, as under the old law, and shall send him to the proper institution for treatment at public expense; but the insane person or his relatives shall be required, on due proof of ability to do so in whole or in part, to reimburse these public officials. Persons may be committed as hitherto upon the certificate of two physicians, the new law requiring them to be residents of Maryland. Though the Maryland laws affecting the insane are not yet what they should be, there is unquestionably a growing sentiment in Maryland in favor of state care, and a wider recognition of the duty of the community to its insane, its epileptics, and its feeble-minded members.

The Insane.— (*a*) In state institutions: white males, 539; white females, 464; colored males, 88; colored females, 103. Total, 1,194. (*b*) In private and corporate institutions: males, 338; females, 436. Total, 774. (*c*) In county asylums for insane: white male, 119; white females, 123; colored males, 40; colored females, 46. Total, 328. (*d*) In county almshouses, in which insane are kept: white males, 70; white females, 55; colored males, 52; colored females, 58. Total, 235. Total number of insane in state institutions, 2,533, as compared with 2,390 in 1898,— an increase of 143.

The rights of children were safeguarded by several laws. One simplifies the language of the law which names the causes of commitment of children. Another unifies the powers given corporations for the care of children, providing among other things that all children committed to such institutions may be retained until eighteen, if

females, or twenty-one, if males, and that the corporations shall have the powers of parents over such children, having the right to place such children in homes at their discretion, subject to visitation at least twice a year. Other laws make it a criminal offence to employ children as trapeze performers, rope walkers, or in similar dangerous occupations, or to buy from children, unless accompanied by parents or guardians, plumbing, furniture, clothes, etc.

The poor borrower in Maryland is now protected by an act making it unlawful to lend money upon chattel mortgage for more than 6 per cent., or to deduct interest in advance, or to split up loans so as to make greater charges than allowed by law, etc. The penalties attached to this wise law are, it is believed, heavy enough to prove effective.

The law relating to the commitment of paupers, habitual beggars and vagabonds in Baltimore City, was amended so as to provide that all such persons should be sent to the house of correction, except such as are not able-bodied, who may be committed to the alms-house. A local law for Baltimore City authorizes the mayor and city council to regulate the care, use, and management of tenement houses, lodging houses, and cellars, this law reaching also free lodging houses.

In Baltimore City the most encouraging fact of the year to all charity workers is the appointment March 1, by Mayor Hayes, of an admirable board of supervisors of public charities (nine members), with Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett as president. The state report from Maryland to the Conference of 1899 explains in detail the powers of this board. Baltimore now has an opportunity to show what good fruits can be secured by an intelligent and cordial co-operation between public and private agencies whose representatives realize that a community's charitable problems must be treated as a whole.

The chief change in the domain of private charity in Baltimore is the serious loss to the Charity Organization Society of its general secretary, Miss M. E. Richmond, who has accepted the general secretaryship of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, of which she will take charge in the autumn.

MASSACHUSETTS.

BY JOHN D. WELLS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Recent legislation requires the State Board of Charity to visit and inspect all almshouses maintained by the several cities and towns of the commonwealth, and to make annual reports on their condition and management, with such suggestions and recommendations as may be deemed expedient. Hitherto these local almshouses have been visited chiefly on the ground of their being receptacles for the insane, and also as containing children; but now for the first time it is specifically provided that they shall be visited and supervised by a central authority as institutions for the care of paupers.

Another important law which has been enacted by the legislature now in session is entitled "An Act to provide for the Better Protection of Children." The State Board of Charity has for some time been authorized to remove illegitimate infants, not under its direct custody, from their boarding-places, when such removal appears to be necessary in order to preserve the infant's life. The new law provides that the board through its agents may remove and take into its custody, or restore to the parent or guardian, any child under the age of seven years cared for apart from its parents, and not cared for properly. If the board is refused entry to the building or room in which the child is kept, recourse may be had to a court of record, and application may be made for a warrant authorizing the board to enter the building and investigate the condition of the place where the child is confined; and whoever hinders and obstructs the board in the execution of this duty, or receives a child without a permit from the board after notice from the board to that effect, is made punishable by fine, and, upon a second conviction, by fine or imprisonment.

For several successive years the State Board of Charity has recommended that all dependent children,— that is, those who have become a public charge because they are orphans or because their parents are too poor to maintain them,— as well as juvenile offenders and neglected children, shall receive state care and support, so far as the state board and each local board of overseers of the poor shall together determine. A bill to provide for this is now before the legislature, with fair prospect of passage. The early effect of the law would

probably bring from 500 to 1,000 more children into the custody of the board, thus securing for them the benefits of a tried and approved system of care and oversight.

The StateBoard of Insanity has made a special report to the legislature, recommending that all the insane shall be cared for in state institutions and at state expense. This would necessitate additional state provision for about 900 insane inmates of the city and town almshouses, in addition to the acquisition of the Boston Insane Hospital, containing about 500 inmates, and its conversion into a state hospital, and would involve the transfer of between 5,000 and 6,000 persons from town to state expense. The report also recommends the establishment of a colony, on a large farm, to provide for a class of quiet, chronic insane, capable of doing some work, who would thus enjoy greater freedom than is possible in the present institutions and live under conditions more nearly approaching home life. A bill embodying these propositions is now before the legislature, and has been favorably reported on by the Committee on Public Charitable Institutions. The bill is largely supported by the medical profession of the state and by overseers of the poor of the cities and towns.

The Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded is making a notable departure from established methods of care for the adult feeble-minded. With money appropriated by the legislature, an estate of about 2,000 acres, with many natural advantages for the development and economical support of a village community composed of this class of defectives, has been purchased; and to this the trustees of the school will remove at first the boys, and eventually the girls, who have passed the school age, and have been trained to useful kinds of work, and will provide for them in the farm-houses on the property and in additional houses to be erected. Twenty-five boys will be at once transferred from the school, and will carry on the farm work, do excavating and road-building, and assist in the construction of buildings. Others will follow as soon as proper provision can be made for them.

At the Massachusetts Hospital for Epileptics a cottage for 20 sane epileptic men has recently been opened. Work is now in progress upon an infirmary to accommodate 40 patients, two infirmary cottages for 30 patients each, a cottage for 20 sane epileptic women, and other buildings which will increase the capacity of the hospital

to 350 patients, and will provide for a classification into three groups, separated at some distance from each other and practically distinct; namely, the main hospital group for the insane of both sexes, and separate accommodations for sane epileptic men and women.

Three measures of note have been urged upon the present legislature, and after consideration and discussion have been rejected. These are: (1) A bill providing that the jails and houses of correction now maintained by the several counties shall be maintained and controlled by the state. This bill has failed of passage for several successive years. (2) A bill to secure the establishment of a new reformatory in the eastern part of the state, where special provision should be made for boys under seventeen years of age, and to which no person over thirty-five years of age should be sentenced. Such a law would have provided an intermediate institution between the Lyman School for boys and the Concord Reformatory for men. (3) A bill to abolish the recently established separate departments of the city of Boston,— for the care of children, paupers, and offenders, and the registration department,— and to establish in their place a charities and correction department under the control of one officer.

Among the bills still before the legislature may be mentioned: a bill forbidding imprisonment in dark cells in any penal institution of the commonwealth except the state prison; a bill authorizing municipal, police, and district courts throughout the commonwealth to appoint one probation officer each, with as many assistants as may be needed; a bill providing for the establishment of twenty playgrounds in the city of Boston; and a bill to abolish the death penalty.

A. Delinquents.

Adult Criminals.— State prison, 863; Reformatory Prison for Women, 247; Massachusetts Reformatory (men), 832; county jails, 580; county houses of correction, 3,028; state farm, 801. Total, 6,351.

Vicious and Insubordinate Children.— In reform schools, 543; in families, 1,248. Total, 1,791.

B. Destitutes.

Adults.— In state institutions, 982; in local almshouses, 3,814; in families, 381. Total, 5,177.

Children.— State charges in families, 1,935; town charges in institutions, 398; town charges in families, 799. Total, 3,132.

C. Defectives.

Insane and Feeble-minded.— In hospitals and asylums, 7,425; in local almshouses, 1,186; in School for the Feeble-minded, 609. Total, 9,220.

Deaf.— In institutions, 419.

Blind.— In institutions, 159.

Not included in the above enumeration are 85 sane inmates of the Massachusetts Hospital for Epileptics and 241 inmates of the Massachusetts Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates.

MICHIGAN.

BY L. C. STORRS, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

There has been no session of the legislature this year. No new charitable institutions have been reported.

Public sentiment favors state care of the insane. The law has been amended so that patients in state asylums are paid for by the counties for only one year, after which they become a state charge. The number of insane under care in the state is as follows: in state institutions, 4,042; in private institutions, 236; in Wayne County Asylum, 388; in county poorhouses, 129.

MINNESOTA.

BY JAMES F. JACKSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There is no new legislation to report. The legislature held no session the past winter.

The centre building and one wing have been erected for the state asylums for the chronic insane both at Anoka and at Hastings. The plans are identical, and provide for 125 patients. 100 men have been transferred from the overcrowded hospitals to each asylum. The transfers were so recent that no important results can be

reported. At each asylum, there are about 640 acres of land, some of which is wooded.

Sloyd and trade training are being developed in the state institutions. Sloyd has been introduced in the School for the Deaf and the School for the Blind, both of which have for years taught trades. Sloyd is being developed in the School for the Feeble-minded, and the principles of sloyd have been adapted to work in iron as an addition to the considerable amount of manual training carried on at the State Training School.

There has been the usual increase in population in the institutions for the insane and the feeble-minded. The increase in the State Training School is because fewer inmates are placed on parole for special reasons without having earned the right by the grade and mark system. It is also due in part to the operations of the law making it optional with judges of the district courts whether or not they will commit youths between the ages of sixteen and seventeen to the school. Formerly they were not allowed to send to the school children over sixteen years of age.

The total number receiving pauper relief in December, 1898, was 10,655; in December, 1899, it was 8,722,— a decrease of about 18 per cent.

The probation system in operation less than one year in the three largest counties gives indications of good results.

New jails are being erected in those counties whose jails have been condemned in the past fifteen months. Nearly a dozen lockups have been formally condemned in accordance with authority granted to the State Board by the legislature of 1899. Only one town demurred to the action, and their protest was not serious. It is now the custom for boards of county commissioners contemplating the erection of jails and for most cities and villages contemplating the erection of lockups to consult with the secretary of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, so that, when officially submitted to the board, their plans will be accepted without amendment or delay. Accordingly, a pamphlet has just been issued by the State Board, presenting suggestions for jails and lockups, with illustrations for the benefit of those considering construction; and a similar pamphlet has been issued concerning poorhouse construction.

The last session of the legislature provided funds for analyzing the accounts of the state institutions,— a work previously undertaken by

the State Board, but which had been crowded out by work incident to the growth of the state, and to the new duties imposed upon the board by each succeeding legislature.

The quarterly comparative statements compiled from the analysis have not shown radical difference in prices paid; but they have already secured enough changes to fully warrant the return to the analysis.

MISSISSIPPI.

No report.

MISSOURI.

BY MISS MARY E. PERRY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The two new institutions which came into existence at the close of the last General Assembly have been located,—the insane hospital at Farmington, in the south-eastern part of the state, and the epileptic and feeble-minded colony at Marshall, in central Missouri.

The commission or contract for building these institutions has been given to two young architects, the colony for the epileptic and feeble-minded to a young woman; and we are hoping that the health, convenience, and pleasure of the sick inmates, for whose benefit the money has been appropriated, will receive paramount consideration in the arrangement and construction of these buildings.

The Industrial Committee of the Wednesday Club, "created for the purpose of inquiring into the industrial occupations of the women and children of the state," has inspected a number of factories, shops, and sweat-shops; but active work has been deferred pending hoped for legislation.

A Philanthropic Committee has been created in the Missouri Federation of Women's Clubs.

The question of state care for the insane has as yet received but little attention in Missouri.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— 2,400 in the state penitentiary at Jefferson City, 3,000 in jails.

Vicious.— (Drunkards, vagrants, and prostitutes.) 600 in workhouses of St. Louis and Kansas City.

Insubordinates.— In the Boys' Reform School at Boonville, 340; State Industrial Home for Girls at Chillicothe, 100; House of Refuge in St. Louis, 416.

B. Destitutes.

In the Poorhouses.— 4,500.

Destitute Children.— 2,500 in private institutions. 600 a year cared for by St. Ann's, Bethesda, and Colored Orphans' Home.

Sick and Injured.— 251 soldiers in the state federal and confederate homes at St. James and Higginsville; and 823 in the female and city hospitals, St. Louis.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— Population of the state, 2,456. About one-half of these under the school age,— twenty-four years. In the State Blind School in St. Louis, 109 pupils.

Deaf-mutes.— 2,003. 350 pupils in the State School at Fulton.

Feeble-minded Children.— 5,000 population. 1,600 within the limit of the school age.

Insane.— 4,600 in the asylums at St. Joseph, Nevada, St. Louis, Fulton, and in the poor-farms, 500 in private institutions.

MONTANA.

BY LAURA E. HOWEY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

A home for rescue work among women has been established at Helena. An orphans' home has been established by the Eastern Star Masonic Circle.

The state of Montana still farms out its convicts and insane. No permanent policy has been adopted,

The physicians in charge of the insane hospitals are competent men. One is a German physician of high standing in his profession.

Delinquent children are kept in the State Reform School. There are few poorhouses in the state. Lewis and Clark County has a fine building, with baths, operating-room, etc. Destitute children are

cared for by local societies. The sick and injured are cared for at county expense in the county hospital. There is a school for the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded at Boulder. No insane are kept in county poorhouses. The Butte Associated Charities is the best local society in the state. The Children's Home Society, with headquarters in Helena, is doing a vast amount of good. Our State Orphan Home and the Catholic orphan asylums are ably conducted.

NEBRASKA.

BY A. W. CLARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No meeting of the state legislature has been held in Nebraska during the past year.

No important charitable organization or institution has been established in Nebraska within the past twelve months, neither has there been any important movement in this work requiring special attention. The women's clubs of the state have been active in philanthropic work, and have accomplished splendid results, especially in Omaha, where the only free public cooking schools and kitchen-gardens in the state have been maintained.

In the year 1891 the care of all insane patients within the state of Nebraska was transferred to the state, and all these patients are maintained wholly at the expense of the state. No effort has been made of late to secure assistance from counties or from individuals in providing their clothing or food for their maintenance. There seems to be no division of sentiment in this state upon that subject. Neither have there been any proposed changes in methods of caring for the insane within the past year. In regard to the Institute for Feeble-minded, counties and individuals who send patients are expected by the state to furnish $40 annually toward the support of each one. This has caused so much confusion and trouble that the sentiment at present is strong in favor of the state having absolute care and maintenance of the inmates of this institution, and it is believed the plan will be changed at the next annual meeting of the legislature. No other state institution receives from counties or individuals any assistance.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— In state prison, 279.

The Vicious.— Nebraska has no institution for vagrants and drunkards except jails

Insubordinates.— Industrial School for Boys at Kearney, 146 inmates; Industrial School for Girls at Geneva, 69 inmates; Industrial Home for young women at Milford, 58 inmates,— a total of 273.

B. Destitutes.

The Aged Poor.— Nearly all the poor of the state are provided for in county almshouses and in private homes. 9 old persons are provided for at the expense of the state in the Home for the Friendless at Lincoln.

Destitute Children.— The Home for the Friendless at Lincoln is a state institution, with 75 children as inmates at present. The population of this institution varies, because it is a placing-out agency, and handles quite a number of children for adoption. Most of the homeless children of the state, however, are cared for and provided with homes by private associations. Most prominent among these are the Nebraska Children's Home society and the Child-saving Institute of Omaha.

The Sick and Injured.— No provision has been made by the state for this class. The city of Omaha and some of the other cities of the state provide temporarily for emergency cases. These are then treated through the county authority. Douglas County has a county hospital located at Omaha. It is the only county hospital in the state. Other hospitals of Nebraska are generally managed and supported by the various religious bodies with which they are connected.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— Nebraska has one state institution called the Institute of the Blind, located at Nebraska City, with 72 inmates.

Deaf-mutes.— Nebraska has one institution for deaf-mutes called the Deaf and Dumb Institute, located at Omaha, with 168 inmates.

The Feeble-minded.— Nebraska has one institution for this class, called the Institute for the Feeble-minded, located at Beatrice, with 220 inmates.

The Insane.— (*a*) Nebraska has three hospitals for the care of the insane patients, at Lincoln, Hastings, and Norfolk. The hospital for chronic insane patients is at Hastings, with 700 patients. (*b*) No patients are cared for in private institutions of the city. (*c*) No county asylums exist in Nebraska. (*d*) It is estimated that about 200 patients are being cared for at present in the county poorhouse.

The Nebraska Soldiers' and Sailors' Home is located at Grand Island, with 235 inmates. Another Soldiers' and Sailors' Home is maintained at the expense of the state at Milford, with 44 inmates.

NEVADA.

No report.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

BY MRS. MELUSINA H. VARICK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There is no legislation to report this year. Important work has been done by the various committees of the State Conference of Charities which was held in Concord April 11, 1900. The importance of the work done by the Committees on Dependent Children, Penal Institutions, the feeble-minded, and the insane, can hardly be overestimated.

The aim of the Conference of Charities for 1900 was to ascertain the present status of affairs with the above classes of dependants. The Committee on the Insane showed that the insane are cared for in 1 state and 9 county institutions. In the latter case, all insane are classed as paupers, and statistics, therefore, difficult to obtain. About 35 per cent. of the paupers in New Hampshire are insane. Entire state hospital care instead of the present mixed county and state systems is advocated.

The Committee on Dependent Children submitted a careful report compiled by Mrs. F. S. Streeter, of Concord. It shows 1,184 children cared for by public and private charity in the state.

After hearing the report on the feeble-minded, by Dr. C. S. Murkland, the Conference adopted resolutions calling the attention of the legislature to the neglected condition of this class of defective de-

dendants, and looking toward the establishment of a proper institution.

The Committee on Penal Institutions reports jails in good sanitary condition, with but few women inmates. It recommends the separation of children awaiting trial or undergoing sentence from more hardened criminals. It also reports only 1 jail where labor is compulsory. Houses of correction usually employ inmates on farm in summer and in wood sawing or cutting in winter.

The asylum for the insane has erected a new and commodious nurses' home, costing $13,000, accommodating 31 women attendants.

The Federation of Women's Clubs through its Sociological Committee made a thorough investigation of the condition of our jails.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— State prison, 138; county houses of correction, 404; city farms, 67. Total, 609.

Vicious and Insubordinate Children.— In State Industrial School, 126; in county houses of correction, 3; total, 129. Total group of delinquents, 738.

B. Destitutes.

Sane adults in almshouses, 536; children in almshouses, 28; children in orphan asylums, 245; children placed in families, 163; total, 436. Total number of destitutes (exclusive of those receiving temporary aid in their own homes), 1,072.

There are 1,184 children wholly supported by public funds or private charity in New Hampshire at this writing.

C. Defectives.

Insane and feeble-minded at state asylum, 426; insane in almshouses (including 10 children), 350; feeble-minded in almshouses (including 15 children), 272; feeble-minded in Massachusetts school at Waltham, 3. Total, 1,051.

A large proportion of patients at the state asylum are there at their own or relatives' cost.

Deaf and dumb children in institutions in other states, 19; blind

children in institutions outside state, 13; total, 32. Total defectives supported by public and private cost, 1,083.

Report of Committee on Dependants.

Your Committee on Dependent Children has devoted itself chiefly to the collection of facts and figures.

Before submitting the statement, however, let us look for a moment into the past. All legislation for dependants in the state of New Hampshire, previous to 1895, included all classes, old and young, under the one term "pauper," except that in the year 1879 a law was passed appropriating $10,000 annually for the support of indigent deaf and dumb, blind, and feeble-minded children,— $5,000 for the deaf and dumb, $4,000 for the blind, $1,000 for the feeble-minded.

Previous to 1895 there had been a gradual change from the early town system, where each town maintained its own poor within its own limits, to the county system first established about 1863, each of the ten counties then establishing a county farm, so called, where town and county paupers might both be maintained, the towns paying the counties for their own poor. So far as I can ascertain, not a single one of the old town farms is now in existence; but two or three cities still maintain their city farms,— namely, Portsmouth, Nashua, Manchester.

In 1895, owing to the unremitting efforts of Mrs. Blodgett for five or six years, an act providing for the education and maintenance of dependent minor children, and forbidding their detention in almshouses longer than thirty days, became a law. Only since the passage of this law has any real, definite consideration been given by the state of New Hampshire to its dependent children, in distinction from its other classes of dependants.

There are at present in the state of New Hampshire a total number of 588 children dependent upon public support, as follows: —

	Boys.	*Girls.*	*Total.*
Still in almshouses	37	47	84
Orphan asylums	152	93	245
Placed out in families	88	74	163
In insane asylum		1	1
In Industrial School	85	11	95
	362	226	588

The 84 children still remaining in almshouses are mostly babies under three years or defective children. But where children are temporarily thrown upon public support, either by illness of one or both parents, or while one or both parents are under sentence for crime, the State Board of Charities and county commissioners sometimes agree together to leave such families of children temporarily in the almshouses rather than separate the family.

In addition to these 588 children supported within the state, there are, under the provisions of the law of 1879, quoted above, 35 children supported outside the state, as follows: 13 in institutions for the blind, 19 in institutions for the deaf and dumb, and 3 in the Waverly School for the Feeble-minded, making 623 children in all cared for by public funds. Then there are in the state of New Hampshire 12 private orphan asylums, at present supporting 780 children. Deducting from this total of 780 children the 219 county charges included and already recorded, as kept in the other list, and we have a balance of 561 children supported by private charity, or a total for the whole state of public and private charges both of 1,184 dependent children. In addition to the 580 children supported within the state entirely at public expense, a large number are also partially supported at their own homes or with relatives. Upon a close estimate there are now about 535 children helped at their own homes.

In any event, it is an interesting question; and it all goes to show that the state of New Hampshire is paying out much larger sums in outdoor relief, both for children and adults, than should be expected. Another problem for us to discuss.

Now given these 588 children, the question is, "What shall we do with them?"

The State Board of Charities, under whose direct supervision these children come, is just beginning to keep an accurate card record, containing such facts as to the birth, parentage, religion, etc., of each child as they can obtain.

They are also endeavoring to establish a system of volunteer visitation, whereby each child will have some one visitor especially interested in his or her behalf,— a visitor who will see the child regularly, take an interest in his home, clothes, school, church, everything, in short, which is most important in his life, and report upon it regularly every three months to the Board of Charities. The

board thus hopes to keep in close touch with each child, to know always just how and where each child is, and to help the child in every possible way to grow up to be a self-respecting, self-supporting, educated, and responsible citizen of our beloved state.

It would seem at first but a simple, easy task to find out each child's name, age, and abiding-place, and to know always just "how and where he is"; but the mere task of compiling a correct record of the name of each child in the present condition of our sources of information presents almost insuperable difficulties, and shows most emphatically the absolute necessity of a central bureau, such as the State Board of Charities is now establishing, where all the names from the ten different counties shall be enrolled, and where a uniform system of subsequent records shall be established. And, if the mere record of the individual children is difficult, the problem of visiting them regularly by the volunteer system is even more so. Satisfactory visitation is practically impossible, without at least one paid agent, whose entire time can be given to the work, and under whom the volunteer visitors can work. But at present there is no appropriation for this purpose. The volunteer system alone is better than nothing; and, therefore, the State Board of Charities has decided to undertake it.

NEW JERSEY.

BY MRS. E. E. WILLIAMSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Our most important legislative measure was the passage of the School Bill, which has created an entirely new system in the public schools. It is considered by experts the best produced in any state. In first-class cities nine trustees are elected, or appointed at large, as the people shall determine at the polls; smaller numbers in smaller cities and boroughs. A great deal of power is vested in the School Board. Politics have been eliminated.

The creation of a Fireman's Home, partially supported by the state, is one of the most important charitable institutions recently established. A further appropriation has been made for Travelling Libraries, a large number of which are now circulating under the State Librarian. The women's clubs have accomplished this.

During the past year a movement has been made by some of the counties to erect insane asylums for the care of county patients.

This has been brought about by the excessive charge made for county patients in state hospitals. The State Charities Aid Association is using its influence to prevent the smaller counties from building asylums.

The number of delinquents in State prison at Trenton is 1,706, 22 being women. In the State Industrial School for Girls, 138. At the Jamesburg Reform School for Boys the average number during the past year was 394. The State Reformatory at Rahway will be opened in October.

Of the destitutes there are about 2,000 adults in the almshouses.

Inmates of Soldiers' Home at Kearney are 550. A new home for disabled soldiers and their wives has just been opened in Vineland, but there can be no report till next year.

The State Board of Children's Guardians are rapidly removing children from almshouses. On May 1, 1900, they found 403 children in the almshouses. After a preliminary investigation, 146 were returned to their parents and relatives; and the remaining children were rapidly placed in boarding and free homes. Several large and small almshouses have thus been emptied. In Hudson County the freeholders placed stumbling-blocks in the way of the board; but at the last session of the legislature the bill was amended so that the board has begun to place children from that county.

Of our defectives, 19 blind men and 17 women are boarded out by the state.

Our deaf-mutes, numbering 136, are cared for in a fine state school.

Our 108 feeble-minded women and girls are in a state institution at Vineland.

Our insane patients in Trenton number 1,386; in county institutions, 770; in county poorhouses, about 80.

The report of the factory inspectors is unusually interesting. Better work has been done by them than ever before. The women's clubs are urging the appointment of women on this board.

The probation law has passed the legislature, allowing the judge of the criminal court in each county to appoint a probation officer. If other officers shall be needed in any county, the freeholders have the power to appoint them.

The charity organization throughout the state has done magnificent work. They have co-operated with the State Board of Children's

Guardians, as have also all the Children's Aid Societies and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

NEW MEXICO.

BY MARY J. BORDEN, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no change in the condition of things in this territory. There are about 220 convicts in the penitentiary. The Children's Home has been discontinued for lack of appropriation.

NEW YORK.

BY HOMER FOLKS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of 1900 established two new state charitable institutions,— a hospital for consumptives and a hospital for crippled children. The movement for a state sanatorium for consumptives was inaugurated four years ago. Two years ago a special Senatorial Committee was appointed to report as to the advisability of such a step. The committee reported a year ago in favor of the plan, but the bill to carry their recommendations into effect failed of passage. This year it was successful. The law provides for the establishment of a state hospital in the Adirondack Mountains, for the treatment of indigent persons in the incipient stages of pulmonary tuberculosis. The bill was strongly supported by all the medical societies of the state, by all the prominent charitable associations, and by many important private hospitals. The appropriation for the institution, which was originally placed at $250,000, was reduced to $50,000 before the bill was passed; but with this sum a good start can be made. The actual cost of maintenance is to be a charge upon the counties from which the patients are received. An excellent board of managers has been appointed by the governor.

The other new state charitable institution is a state hospital for crippled children. There was no popular demand for this institution. The bill was not supported by the State Board of Charities nor by any of the charitable or medical societies. Responsible authorities declared that the hospitals established by private charity were entirely sufficient to meet the needs. No hearings were had upon the bill.

Political influences favored it, however; and it passed without attracting much notice. It may be hoped that the institution will prove to be of public benefit.

Important questions as to the powers of the State Board of Charities have been recently made on the subject of litigation and of proposed legislation. According to the Revised Constitution of 1894, and the State Charities Law of 1896, the State Board of Charities is required to visit and inspect all charitable institutions, whether state, county, municipal, public or private, incorporated or not incorporated. Upon attempting to inspect the buildings and work of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, the board was refused admittance, the society asserting that it was not a "charitable institution." The board requested the attorney-general to bring an action in the Supreme Court to determine the right of the board to make the inspection. The first decision in part sustained the board's contention; but, as it was not entirely satisfactory to either party to the suit, both parties appealed to the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, which handed down a decision unanimously sustaining the board's contention in every particular. From this decision the society appealed to the Court of Appeals, which on January 9 of the present year handed down a decision written by Justice O'Brien, and concurred in by three other judges, while the remaining three judges concurred in a dissenting opinion. This decision reversed the decisions of the lower courts, holding that the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children is not a "charitable institution," and is not subject to the jurisdiction of the State Board of Charities; and, further than this, that the scheme of state supervision was intended to apply only to institutions maintained in whole or in part by the state or some of its political divisions.

The announcement that a society for the prevention of cruelty to children is not a charitable institution was certainly surprising; but still more so was the limitation of the state board's jurisdiction to institutions receiving public money. The work which the State Board had carried on for more than a quarter of a century, in inspecting all classes of charities, had seemed to be not only allowed, but required by the letter as well as the spirit of the law. The State Board requested the Court of Appeals to listen to a reargument of the case; but this has been refused, and the limitation of the power of inspection to institutions receiving public funds has been confirmed.

Meanwhile two bills were introduced in the legislature at the request of the State Board. One was a bill to subject societies for the prevention of cruelty to children to the same inspection as other charitable societies. The other was a restatement of the rights and duties of the State Board of Charities in connection with the inspection of charitable institutions, so as to specifically include institutions not receiving public aid. As certain features of this bill were not altogether satisfactory to prominent private charitable societies, it was replaced, with the consent of the State Board of Charities, by a bill framed by the representatives of these private charitable societies, and entirely satisfactory to them, as well as to the State Board, and apparently to every one interested. This bill made the right of inspection as inclusive as possible, but defined more clearly and narrowly than does the existing law the powers and duties of the State Board in relation to private charities. The president of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children was, however, opposed to the bill, though it did not in any way affect his society; and, as a result of this opposition, the bill — and also the bill relating to societies for the prevention of cruelty to children — failed of passage.

A bill limiting the powers of the State Board of Charities in connection with the State Home for Soldiers and Sailors at Bath to the constitutional right of inspection has become law. The bill received executive approval on the ground that veterans should be treated differently from other dependants.

The care and treatment of the 22,000 dependent insane in the state hospitals will soon reach that long-anticipated stage when the census of the state hospitals will no longer exceed their proper capacity, and when no unsuitable buildings will be in use. Within the next two years the large new colony at Central Islip, L.I., planned to accommodate 2,260 patients, will undoubtedly be completed; and it will be possible to abandon the unsuitable buildings on Blackwell's Island and in Brooklyn, where about 2,000 of the insane are now provided for. At the different state hospitals during the past year additional accommodations have been provided for about 800 patients, which is estimated to be the normal annual increase, though the actual increase of the past year was only 562, and of the year before 688. But there are still about 1,000 more patients in the eleven state hospitals than their certified capacity would justify.

The appropriation made by the legislature of 1900 for the maintenance of the insane was $84,000 greater than that made in 1899; and, in addition to the maintenance appropriation, $1,000,000 was appropriated for the continuance of the work on the new colony at Central Islip, which is to all practical purposes a new state hospital. The legislature also passed a bill subdividing the Long Island and Manhattan State Hospitals, which together comprise nearly half the state hospital population of the state. The Long Island State Hospital is divided into two divisions, and the Manhattan State Hospital into three. This will reduce the average population of each of the five divisions to about 1,850, which is reasonably near the average population of the other nine state hospitals, now about 1,350.

The State Commission of Prisons reports that the most marked feature of prison statistics during the past year is the diminution in the number of convicts in the penitentiaries, without any increase of convicts in any other of the penal institutions. In fact, there is a diminution of the prison population in each class of penal institutions. During the past year considerable progress has been made in employing prisoners in jails. Road-building has been the chief form of employment introduced. The result has been a reduction in the number of prisoners in jails in counties requiring labor. During the past year many articles formerly purchased by New York City from the state prisons have been manufactured in the city penitentiary and workhouse; and, while the inmates of the city institutions have been benefited by this increased employment, the demand for the state prison products has been considerably reduced.

The effort of the Women's Prison Association to obtain legal right of entrance to the penal institutions of the state was unsuccessful, the bill authorizing justices of the Supreme Court to appoint members of this association as visitors to such institutions having failed of passage.

The movement for tenement-house reform has received a decided impetus during the past year in New York from the tenement-house exhibition, organized by the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society, and held for a period of two weeks at Fifth Avenue and 37th Street. The exhibition was viewed by over 10,000 persons, and aroused great interest among all classes. It contained six models of blocks of buildings, over 1,000 photographs,

over 100 maps, and many plans, diagrams, charts, and tables of statistics, showing existing conditions in New York's tenement houses, model tenements all over the world, suburban dwellings, lodging-houses, health conditions, poverty conditions, agencies for betterment, competitive plans for model tenements, parks, playgrounds, baths, libraries, etc., as well as a study of typical housing conditions in the leading American cities.

The exhibition was opened by Governor Roosevelt and other distinguished citizens; and during the second week a series of conferences was held, led by eminent specialists.

As a result of the exhibition, a law was enacted authorizing the governor to appoint a state commission for the purpose of investigating all phases of the tenement-house problem in New York City and Buffalo, the commission being directed to consider the existing law, and to report to the next legislature a code of new tenement-house laws.

The comptroller of the city of New York has been carrying on a vigorous campaign against the plan of making indiscriminate grants from city funds to a great variety of private charitable institutions. After a long and careful study of the subsidy system, the comptroller made a very valuable report to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in September, in which he condemned many features of the present system, and made recommendations which may be briefly summarized as follows: —

All appropriations for charitable purposes should be included in the annual city budget, and not provided for from any other source, such as the Excise Tax Fund, and the Theatrical and Concert License Fund; public moneys should be disbursed only upon a basis of per capita payment measured by specific services performed, with a uniform basis for all institutions performing similar work; the unnecessary detention of children in institutions should be prevented by a more thorough system of investigation which would ascertain the circumstances of parents and make them care for their children when financially and morally capable of doing so; payments to medical charities should be made only for cases certified by the department of public charities as proper charges on the city, and the city should not pay for cases at private hospitals for whom there is room at public hospitals; homes for the aged are properly subjects for private charity exclusively; institutions whose work cannot be so

classified as to be subsidized on a per capita basis, or some other definite system of payment, should not receive public money.

Nearly all the recommendations of the comptroller were adopted by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. To carry out the new system which went into effect on Jan. 1, 1900, the comptroller has appointed in the Finance Department a special corps of inspectors for charitable institutions receiving public aid. With the interests of the public treasury guarded by the State Board of Charities, the City Department of Charities, and the Finance Department, there should be less opportunity in the future for abuses in connection with the subsidy system.

One immediate outcome of the comptroller's opposition to the city's custom of largely supporting many private institutions once supported by private charity is the transfer of the Brooklyn Homœopathic Hospital to the city. The property is valued at $150,000, but has a mortgage of $60,000. As the public hospitals of Brooklyn are overcrowded, this addition to the resources of the city is welcomed.

The Department of Charities of New York City has removed its children's work from the general office of the department to a separate building in another street, and has organized a special Bureau for Dependent Children. It has been suggested that in the same building there should be established a children's court, so that all cases of commitment by magistrates may be disposed of in one place, and removed from the degrading surroundings of the police courts.

The co-operation between the Charity Organization Society and the Department of Public Charities in investigating the circumstances of children whose commitment to institutions is applied for has been continued with excellent results. When the parents are worthy persons, and may be able to provide permanently for their children, if assisted at a time of temporary distress, the society gives them temporary aid, and enables them to retain their children.

The placing-out of children from institutions in family homes in this state has been continued and increased by the Children's Aid Society, the Catholic Home Bureau, and the State Charities Aid Association.

The Summer School in Philanthropic Work, which has been very successfully conducted by the Charity Organization Society for two

years, will meet again this year from June 18 to July 28. In order to register at this school, one must have completed the course at a college or university or have had at least one year of experience in philanthropic work.

The State Board of Charities has undertaken the publication of a magazine, *The Quarterly Review*, which will record the progress of the charitable work of the state, and serve as the official organ of the board.

The establishment of an annual State Conference of Charities and Corrections is advocated by the State Board of Charities, and it is planned to hold the first meeting in October, 1900, in the Senate Chamber of the capitol at Albany.*

In Buffalo the efforts of the Charity Organization Society to secure a reduction in the city appropriation for outdoor relief continue to meet with success. In 1898 the appropriation was $118,585; in 1899, $92,950; and in 1900, $51,560; the overseer of the poor estimating each year for $122,950. The society has secured an appropriation of $1,500 from the city for a municipal playground and outdoor gymnasium, the first to be established in Buffalo.

In Syracuse, which has the unenviable reputation of giving a larger amount of outdoor relief per capita than any other city in the country, an effort is being made to apply the work-test for admission to the municipal lodging-house.

The census of charitable and correctional institutions in the state of New York on Oct. 1, 1899, was as follows:—

Charitable Institutions:		
Aged and friendless persons	7,392	
Almshouse inmates	11,251	
Blind in almhouses	341	
Blind in other institutions	414	
Deaf in almshouses	94	
Deaf in other institutions	1,548	
Dependent children	31,218	
Disabled soldiers and sailors	1,611	
Epileptics in almshouses	316	
Epileptics in Craig Colony	378	
Hospital patients	8,223	
Idiotic and feeble-minded in almshouses	1,153	
Idiotic and feeble-minded in state institutions	1,303	
Juvenile offenders	3,501	
Inmates of reformatories (women and girls)	1,868	70,611

* The first meeting was held in Albany, Nov. 20–22, 1900.

Hospitals for the Insane:		
In private asylums	930	
In the state hospitals	22,093	23,023
Penal Institutions:		
In the three state prisons	3,232	
In the Elmira Reformatory	1,383	
In the six county penitentiaries	2,221	
In the New York City Workhouse	1,098	
In the county jails (awaiting trial)	1,082	
In the county jails (convicted)	1,979	
In the county jails (detained as witnesses)	19	
In the county jails (detained as fraudulent debtors)	30	11,044
Total		104,678

The number of inmates of charitable and penal institutions shows a slight decrease from the preceding year. There is a slight increase in the number of the insane.

NORTH CAROLINA.

BY C. B. DENSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No legislature has assembled since the last report.

New institutions are as follows: —

The Old Women's Home for Confederate Widows and others, established in Raleigh. Has 36 now under its care. About one-half of estimated cost has been subscribed, and it is in temporary buildings now. St. Luke's Circle of King's Daughters has the credit of organizing it.

The Methodist Orphanage and Retreat for Aged Ministers was established in Raleigh by the conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, Rev. J. W. Jenkins, superintendent.

Roman Catholic Orphanage (Raleigh), recently organized, but promises effective work.

The sentiment in North Carolina favors the care unreservedly of all needy insane, white and colored, at the expense of the state. Although our three hospitals for the insane at Raleigh, Morganton, and Goldsboro have 1,630 patients, there are many yet uncared for properly, including those in jails and county homes. An appeal in their behalf, issued by the Board of Public Charities in March, 1900, was prepared by the writer, sent direct to the leading men throughout

the state and to every newspaper; and two weeks thereafter the platform unanimously adopted by the Democratic State Committee of 1,500 members pledged the party to favor such appropriations as would provide for all indigent insane in the state. That party is now in control of the legislature by a large majority. It is not believed that there will be any opposition of consequence in any party in the next Assembly to an extension of facilities for provision for the insane.

The tendency to crime is now believed by some to be decreasing. Better times have made some difference, but the tobacco sections are more depressed than ever.

It is exceedingly difficult to get reliable statistics in our state. I give you the best to be had.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— We take records twice a year from the jails and the police stations, but they are not to be relied upon. Where negro jailers are serving, records are not kept, in most cases. And that is true of some white ones.

But the number of indictments and convictions can be given of the last completed term reported by the attorney-general for year ending July 1, 1898: total criminal actions, male, 9,011; female, 718; total, 9,729; convictions, including submissions, 6,238.

A great number of smaller offences are disposed of in magistrate's court. The list above embraces only cases that have reached the regular superior and criminal courts.

Insubordinates.— So far as reported, we estimate about 2,500.

B. Destitutes.

Poor in Poorhouses.— Reliable reports give 2,100, the majority largely negroes.

Fully three times this number are cared for by allowances from the counties, averaging $2 to $3 monthly made to their friends. The above includes children in the county homes for the aged and infirm. Besides these, 210 are cared for by the state in the orphan asylum, and about 560 in the several church orphanages, the Odd Fellows' Asylum, and the Buncombe County Children's Home.

No report from hospitals sufficient to give accurate estimate, but the number of hospitals and beds in the same is increasing.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— Now in the two institutions for the white blind and colored blind, in Raleigh, 284.

Deaf-mutes.— In School for the Deaf at Morganton, 200; in North Carolina Colored Deaf-mute School at Raleigh, 114. Total, 314.

Feeble-minded Children.— No institution yet. They are included in number at county homes of the poor. This board has brought the subject to the attention of the General Assembly.

The Insane.— (*a*) State institutions: in State Hospital, Raleigh (corrected to May 10, 1900), 429; in State Hospital, Morganton, 756; in State Hospital, Goldsboro (for colored only), 445. Total, 1,630. (*b*) in private institutions: only one has been licensed by the Board of Public Charities (1899), with a capacity of 12. (*c*) In county homes, including county asylums and poorhouses, as follows, from census taken by this board up to March 1, 1900: white insane, 110; colored insane, 56. Total, 166. Grand total insane, 1,808. White epileptics, 64; colored epileptics, 33; white idiots, 93; colored idiots, 61. I regret to add another division which I will mark. (*d*) In county jails: white insane, 17; colored insane, 9; white epileptics, 10; colored epileptics, 1; white idiots, 2; colored idiots, 4. (*e*) In private care: white insane, 148; colored insane, 48; white epileptics, 44; colored epileptics, 8; white idiots, 42; colored idiots, 18. Total of mentally unsound out of state hospitals, 766; in state hospitals, 1,630. Grand total, 2,396.

This falls very much below the truth, to my certain knowledge; but I am rejoiced to say that there is every indication of strong efforts to care for all our insane. Every party in the state is pledged to it; and we shall succeed in the Assembly of January, 1901, in making substantial increase of accommodation for the insane. The work proposed by the Methodists and Roman Catholics in orphanages at Raleigh will provide for many destitute children, in addition to what is now being done in the state.

I beg to add that new jails and homes are being gradually erected; and the outlook is hopeful, although there is an immense field for effort, hard and continuous.

NORTH DAKOTA.

BY REV. B. H. BRASTED, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The demands for the care of dependent children are increased because of the drouth. The North Dakota Children's Home Society is building a receiving home at Fargo at a cost of $5,200. This society has cared for 43 children during the past year.

OHIO.

BY JOSEPH P. BYERS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Much legislation proposed during the recent session of the legislature was left upon the calendar. Chief among these measures was one providing for the appointment, by the Board of State Charities, of a state agent or agents to facilitate the placing of children from county homes in private families. This bill passed the Senate, and was before a committee in the House when the legislature adjourned. The bill was modelled largely after the Indiana law. Another measure that failed for lack of time was one providing for the suspension of sentences for misdemeanants and the appointment of probation officers.

Two years ago, at the time of the codification of our poor-laws, the legislature enacted a section providing that on and after June 1, 1900, no insane or epileptic persons should be maintained in county infirmaries. This was done with the expectation that the state would appropriate liberally for the erection of cottages at some of our older hospitals, and complete as speedily as possible the but partially finished hospital at Massillon. However, the Finance Committee failed to make any large provision for increased accommodations for these two classes, necessitating on that account the postponement of the date. There is no special change in the law requiring the state to assume care of the insane and epileptics, and prohibiting their retention in country infirmaries, with the exception of the change in the date, which was postponed to June 1, 1903.

An important amendment was made to an existing law which makes it a misdemeanor for parents, one or both, to deprive their children of necessary food, clothing, care, etc. The amendment ex-

tended the law so as to include children committed to county children's homes, providing that, when the father or the mother of such child or children are able, by reason of having means or through labor, to contribute to the support of such children, they shall do so. The amendment further provides that the grade of the offence shall be changed from a misdemeanor to a felony. This was done in order that the parents of children, illegitimate or legitimate, who abandon them and leave the state, may be brought back by process of extradition.

Late in 1899 the organization of the Associated Charities of Columbus was effected. A board of managers of fifteen, composed of leading business and professional men of the city, was elected. An office in the central part of the city was opened, and a superintendent and assistant employed. An unexpectedly hearty co-operation from most, if not all, of the private societies and institutions has been manifested. The city poor department has also manifested a slight inclination to make use of the new organization. Up to the present time the society has operated and will probably continue to do so strictly on the fundamental principles of charity organization, investigation, and registration. The large number of local private societies and institutions, together with the city poor department, furnish the actual relief for all of the many classes of applicants who are deemed worthy.

The diet kitchen of the city of Columbus, recently opened, is operated in the rooms of the Associated Charities by a board of directors. It commenced operations about the first of May, this year, with sixty-eight members. The kitchen is open from nine to twelve o'clock on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday of each week. A record of the work is kept, showing the name of the applicant, by whom sent, and the article of food received. Tickets are distributed to the district nurses, all benevolent and aid societies, and the physicians of the city. These may send any applicant, who is a convalescent, for such articles of diet as are distributed. The articles given out are milk, eggs, soup, and beef tea. Persons are served only on the presentation of a small card, giving the date, applicant's name and address, articles to be furnished, and the name of person sending same. A small fee is charged to persons who are able to pay: milk at two cents a quart; a dozen eggs, two cents; and three cents for a portion of soup and beef tea. Needy persons unable to pay are served

fere of charge. A matron is employed to serve the articles to those presenting cards. A purchasing committee attends to the purchasing. A large portion of the articles are contributed. Since May 1 one hundred and fifty people have been served, and some seemed anxious to pay the small fee for articles received. But one doubtful case has been discovered so far.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Criminals.— Ohio Penitentiary, 1,909; Ohio State Reformatory, 272; county jails (88), 465; total, 2,646.

The Vicious.— Workhouses (4 reporting), 966.

Insubordinates.— Boys' Industrial School, 760; Girls' Industrial Home, 328; total, 1,088.

B. Group of Destitutes.

The Poor in Poorhouses.— County infirmaries (89), 9,011.

Destitute Children.— Children's homes (45 homes reporting), 2,233; Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, 844; House of Refuge, Cincinnati, 393; total, 3,470.

The Sick and Injured.— Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, 1,599.

C. Group of Defectives.

The Blind.— Institution for Blind, 310.

Deaf-mutes.— Institution for Deaf and Dumb, 481.

Feeble-minded Children.— Institution for Feeble-minded Youth, 1,069.

The Insane.— Institutions for insane (state hospitals, 7), 7,247.

Epileptics.— Ohio Hospital for Epileptics, 936.

OKLAHOMA.

No report.

OREGON.

BY W. R. WALPOLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no legislation in the field of charities and corrections.

No important charitable organization or institution has been established since last report.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— There are 324 convicts in the state penitentiary, and about 325 prisoners in county jails.

Vicious.— Are in city and county jails. Number of arrests 1899, about 5,000.

Insubordinates.— Are cared for in State Reform School. Average number of inmates, 150.

B. Destitutes.

The Aged and Infirm (Sane) Poor.— Are kept at county poor-farms in 15 counties. Contracts for boarding paupers are let to individuals in 15 counties.

Children.— Most of these are placed out in homes, being temporarily cared for by private charities. A few are in almshouses temporarily.

The Sick and Injured.— Are cared for in hospitals at expense of counties and private charity.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— Are supported and educated at the State Institute for the Blind.

Deaf-mutes.— Are taken care of at the State School for Deaf-mutes.

Feeble-minded Children.— There is no special provision. Some are cared for in almshouses.

The Insane.— Cared for at the State Insane Asylum, 1,185.

PENNSYLVANIA.

BY FRANK T. ATKINSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature was not in session this year, and hence there has been no change in the laws. Since the passage of the act in 1897, allowing counties and municipalities providing for the care of the insane in such manner as shall meet with the approval of the Board of Public Charities $1.50 from the state per week per capita for maintenance, there have been several county institutions erected for this purpose; and the plan seems to be giving entire satisfaction.

An important addition to the ranks of the charitable and industrial institutions of the state is that of the Jewish Farm School, located at Doylestown, Bucks County. The Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, formerly located at Twentieth and Race Streets, Philadelphia, has recently removed to its new and commodious quarters at Overbrook.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— The aggregate number in the three state prisons is about 3,000.

The Vicious.— There are two correctional institutions devoted to this class. Nearly 1,500 are confined there.

Insubordinates.— The population of the Reform Schools is about 1,600.

B. Destitutes.

The Aged Poor.— Are supported partly in county poorhouses and partly in asylums, under the patronage of religious bodies or charitable societies. Many of these latter received some aid from the state treasury.

Destitute Children.— Very few of these are now left in the almshouses. They have been removed under the children's law, passed in 1883. The number of children dependent upon county support does not tend to increase.

The Sick and Injured.— The state continues to maintain several small hospitals, chiefly in the mining regions. But most of our hos-

pitals are supported by churches or benevolent corporations, assisted by occasional state aid.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— There are two educational institutions for blind children, and two industrial homes for the adult blind.

Deaf-mutes.— For this class of defectives there are four state schools, combining both the oral and manual methods of teaching. Aggregate population, about 850.

Feeble-minded Children.— The two institutions now in operation, one in the eastern and one in the western part of the state, provide for about 1,300 of this class; and an equal or larger number remain under county or private care.

The Insane.— There are six large state hospitals, with nearly 7,000 patients; and about 3,500 more are in county or private hospitals.

RHODE ISLAND.

BY HENRY B. GARDNER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The only important piece of legislation during the past year has been the act in regard to juvenile offenders referred to in my last report as passed by the lower house of the legislature, and which became law May 23, 1899. This act provides for separate trial for minors under sixteen years of age, as well as for their separate confinement and transportation following arrest. Such minors, awaiting trial in default of bail, may be placed by the court in the charge of the probation officers provided for in the act or may be sent to the Providence county jail, the Newport County jail, the Sockanosset School for Boys, or the Oaklawn School for Boys, but not elsewhere. The Board of State Charities and Corrections is empowered to appoint one probation officer with power to act throughout the state, and additional probation officers, one of whom at least must be a woman, to serve in any court having jurisdiction in the place of their appointment. The courts are authorized "at any time before sentence to provisionally place any offender, juvenile or adult, who can lawfully be admitted to bail" (except such as are charged with certain serious crimes) under the control of a probation officer, who is to have the same rights and powers over such offender as are possessed

by a surety on recognizance. Six probation officers have been appointed under the law; and up to the end of the year 1899 there had been placed in their charge, approximately, 54 men, 120 boys, 70 women, and 10 girls.

The only organization started during the past year has been the Providence Boys' Club, organized under the auspices of the National Society for Street Boys. It has taken over and enlarged the work previously carried on by the Union for Christian Work. The club provides a reading-room, gymnasium, and baths. The membership Jan. 1, 1900, was 480; and the average attendance is reported as 93 an evening.

The Workingmen's Loan Association and the Rhode Island Penny Provident Society have been very successful. The former has, during the year, increased its paid in capital from $25,000 to $30,050, and its outstanding loans from $21,107 to $31,659. The losses during the year were $76.15, and the amount carried to surplus account was $602.35. 6 per cent. dividends are paid.

The stamps of the Penny Provident Society are sold in all the grammar schools of Providence, in nine primary schools, in several girls' clubs, in families by an agent employed for the purpose, and by volunteer visitors, and recently in some of the large retail stores.

The value of stamps sold to March 6, 1900 (the society began operations Nov. 1, 1898), was $9,136 (of which $6,465 were sold in the schools); redeemed, $5,245; outstanding, $3,891. 317 savings-bank accounts had been opened by persons who began savings by means of stamps.

The work of cultivating vacant lots is being carried on in Providence for the fourth successive year. The work last year was very successful, lots being cultivated by about fifty different families.

The summer playgrounds and vacation school, hitherto under the management of a committee of private citizens, will this year be under the control of the School Committee, although supported by private subscription.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— State prison: males, 193; females, 2; total, 195. County jails: males, 230; females, 25; total, 255. Total for class, 450.

The Vicious.— State Workhouse and House of Correction: males, 196; females, 56. Total, 252.

Insubordinates.— Sockanosset School for Boys, 329; Oaklawn School for Girls, 45. Total, 374.

B. Destitutes.

The Poor in Poorhouses.— State almshouse: men, 167; women, 169; boys, 29; girls, 11; total, 376. City and town almshouses, 312 (approximate). Total for class, 688 (approximate).

Destitute Children.— State home and school: in the school, 139; in families, 87. Total, 226.

Sick and Injured.— There is no special state institution for this class. The figures for private hospitals are not at hand.

C. Defectives.

Blind.— No institution in the state. The state was supporting 26 blind in institutions outside the state.

Deaf-mutes.— Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf, 61.

Feeble-minded Children.— No institution in the state. There are 32 feeble-minded children in the state almshouse. The state was supporting 25 feeble-minded in institutions outside the state.

The Insane.— State Hospital for the Insane: men, 355; women, 368; total, 723. Butler Hospital: men, 90; women, 102; total, 192. Total for class, 915.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

BY REV. EDMUND N. JOYNER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Perhaps nowhere in the civilized world is there a greater need for provision for a common-sense, systematic application of the principles underlying the administration of benevolence, whether in dispensing charity or uplifting the fallen, than in the South. The situation is apparent in the peculiar, if not unique, conditions of two racial and social elements interlinked by domestic and industrial interests, yet aliens to each other by ethnical antipathies, by antecedent conditions, and by political influences, by sharp social distinction, and the dependence, in all essential respects, of the larger number upon the smaller. It is a fact, which should have its weight, that the era following the war between the states left the dominant race so pros-

trate, the dependent one so distrait, that the very helplessness of the one and the bewilderment of the other, for a generation, put out of reach reforms and readaptations which now have become essential, if not, indeed, vital. The fierce struggle of the Southern people to regain a foothold upon the heights of industry has naturally absorbed their strength and directed their ardor. Now that this has been achieved, and the restoration is complete, the sociologist wonders what prevents a larger and more generously applied study of sociological problems by the second and stalwart generation of Southern leaders. Without claiming thorough knowledge of the facts at large, your correspondent is of the opinion that, in the administration of either charity or correction, South Carolina is not a whit behind the other states of the same general character. The commonwealth has no system of charity except it be that forced upon her, alike for protection and humanity,— the Hospital for the Insane,— unless we except an appropriation for the Asylum of the Deaf-mute and the Blind, this latter having grown from a small affair undertaken by private parties.

Whatever consideration of character enters into the founding and support of the Hospital for the Insane, too much cannot be said of its wise and faithful administration, especially in late years, under one of the most skilful, watchful, and progressive of superintendents, Dr. J. W. Babcock. This institution includes the mentally deranged of both races. It is large in proportions, owning a splendid plant, excellent in appointments, and second to few in administration. At present it has but a few short of 1,200 inmates, which, with those cared for in private asylums and sanatoriums, kept in almshouses and jails, and the feeble-minded cared for at home, is a large proportion of the population of the state, 1,300,000.

Corporation Charities.— Chief among these is the orphan house of Charleston. This was founded in 1783, upon the close of the war of the Revolution. It has never yielded through all these 117 years. Its record is one most honorable to the city. Its private citizens have established endowments, supplied funds and material for its daily needs, and the city liberally appropriated of its funds for its security and support. How many thousands have been sheltered and redeemed from poverty, ignorance, and crime, the angel of mercy knows. So high has been its character that there is, as is usually the case, no taint attached to those who have received its

succor, if so be that they have proved worthy. Some of the most eminent and honorable of men and women in the church and state and in society have owed their lives and characters to this institution. It is little heard of out of Charleston, for it makes no noise; yet has it sheltered for many years an average of about 250 children, and sent them forth year by year into the highways of industry. For about forty years this orphanage has been under the guidance of a woman of rare ability, Miss Agnes K. Irving. Her influence, her skill, and tact, and devotion your correspondent had heard of, but never fully comprehended until he visited the institution, when he went through every department, from the kindergarten for the tots to the exercises in the great assembly room of the orphanage. Never before has he witnessed the power of a personality more wonderfully displayed than throughout this orphanage. It was "writ large" in the forceful yet quiet influence observed; and there was no longer reason to wonder over either the character of this institution or the old city's pride in it.

The Ladies' Benevolent Society.— Founded in 1813 for the "sick poor." For this purpose it expends several hundred dollars a year. Its membership consists of ladies in Charleston of the highest social standing; and its relief has been applied chiefly to indigent persons of the same class, who, unwilling to seek support, have been sought of it by this gracious agency.

The Woman's Exchange.— This was established in 1885; and its object is, according to an article of its constitution, "to promote the efforts of gentlewomen in reduced circumstances to support themselves and their families by the proceeds of the manufacture and sale of articles within their reach." This is common sense; and when one considers the number of "gentlewomen in reduced circumstances" since 1865, for whom it was impossible to seek or receive "charity," so-called, the Exchange will at once justify itself as a "thing of beauty." The last year's report shows receipts amounting to $7,793; and many of these dollars, could they speak, would be eloquent of succor bestowed.

The city of Charleston maintains a large hospital for white and colored patients, and is generous in its care for the many who have to resort thereto. No other corporation in the State undertakes this kind of work, except that Columbia makes an annual appropriation toward the support of a hospital, with the understanding that a certain

class of patients shall be treated free. Until the last year the city aided in the maintenance of a separate hospital for colored people, but this has been given up.

Individual and Denominational Charities.— Under the first head there is an orphanage in Charleston, conducted for colored children by a colored minister, the Rev. Mr. Jenkins. He has about 40 inmates. In connection with it he has an industrial farm just outside of the city limits. At Columbia is also an orphanage for colored children, industrial in its character, under the control of a colored clergyman, the Rev. Richard Carrol.

Of denominational charities, the Presbyterians have one at Clinton, the Baptists one at Greenwood, the Methodists one at Columbia, and the Episcopal church one in Charleston. The latter has also in the last-named place several parochial agencies, wholly benevolent in their character,— the Church Home, connected with St. John's Church and Missions, St. Philip's Church Home, the Caroline Wilkinson Home, of the parish of the Holy Communion, all for aged or indigent women. The Roman Catholic church has an orphanage in Charleston, assisted by the city, and caring for about 150 children. Both Charleston and Columbia have recently organized a system of Associated Charities, which is a step in the right direction.

These constitute, so far as your correspondent can learn, the benevolences, of whatever sort, thoughout the state.

Corrections.— These, alas! can be summed up in short order. The state has none. Its penitentiary does not pretend to assume this character. However, such a large number of negro youth, boys of tender age, have "erred and strayed" that the General Assembly, at its last session, took steps to establish a reformatory. One of its state farms has been designated for this purpose. Preparations are being made to carry out this good purpose; and it will be watched with great interest, and furthered as well, by all citizens who have a mind to concern themselves with the development of social science.

The only distinct agency, correctional in its nature, is an institution under the Episcopal church, this being the Rescue Mission for outcast boys, and established near Columbia. This institution is associated with the general missionary work of that church, organized for the good of the colored people of the state. It is about seven years old, and its growth is slow; but its results have more than justified its expense and care.

This report may well be concluded by expressing the ardent hope that the National Conference will find some way to do some missionary work in the South. In looking over the membership of the Conference, your correspondent finds two names from South Carolina, but a few more from other Southern states, and from some none at all, and, with a few exceptions, no reports whatever. To read the reports of the Conferences, the investigations and conclusions of specialists in every field of social science, would of itself profit any intelligent mind which feels the least responsibility in helping to solve the sociological problems of these "piping times of peace." While this would satisfy the individual, it would also aid in achieving the beneficent purpose of the Commonwealth.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

BY W. B. SHERRARD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There is little to report this year in the field of charities and corrections. A valuable addition is being made to the asylum for the insane, and a building is being erected for the care of feeble-minded. The asylum for the blind has been completed and opened. Perhaps the most significant action during the year is the liberal appropriations being made by the county commissioners of the different counties for the erection of a receiving home for the Children's Home Society. These appropriations vary from $500 to $2,000 each. This society is making an aggressive warfare against crime and immorality as it environs children, with the result that there is not a child on a poor-farm in the state, nor one in the custody of vicious or immoral parents, whose immorality can be proven in court.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— In penitentiary, 134 men, 1 woman, 27 of whom are United States convicts.

Reform School.— 57 boys; 16 girls.

B. Destitutes.

The Poor in Poorhouses.—Number unknown. Destitute children, none.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— 9 children in school.

Deaf-mutes.— 23 boys; 23 girls.

Feeble-minded.— Number unknown.

Insane.— Number of patients in this hospital, 508: males, 325; females, 183. Improvements within the year: Cottage, of stone, about 45 x 65, two and one-half stories with basement. Capacity, 50 patients. Power house, of stone, 80 x 80, containing steam-laundry plant. Rear centre building, of stone, 66 x 144, with wing 66 x 66, four stories, and basement. In this building will be offices and store-rooms, kitchen and bakery, dining-rooms, and a large amusement hall, taking up the whole of the two upper stories, also sleeping-rooms for employees in the wing. A subway 7 x 7 and 600 feet long, of cement, connecting the different buildings, serves as a passageway and conduit for water and steam pipes and electric wires.

TENNESSEE.

No report.

TEXAS.

BY REV. R. C. BUCKNER, D.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The only legislation of any special importance that has been of ate enacted for the relief of unfortunates has been that under the provisions of which an asylum for epileptics is being established by the state. It has been located at Abilene on a tract of land containing 640 acres, contiguous to the city. Plans have been adopted calling for the erection of 20 colony buildings, 10 for men and 10 for women, each with a capacity for 25 patients and 2 attendants. The buildings will be of brick, steam heated and fire-proof. In addition there will be a central hospital and an administration building. There will be a perfect system of water-works and sewerage. The buildings will differ from those of the New York Colony structures only in modifications adapted to our climate.

Our Prisoners' Aid Association is doing no active work as yet, only as its president is called on personally by numerous released

prisoners needing assistance. The difficulty has been in interesting a sufficient number of suitable persons at any one place to constitute an executive committee. This will yet be overcome.

Delinquents.

Criminals.— In prison, on state farms, and at other work outside of walls, about 4,500, with a moderate decrease over previous years.

Defectives.

Insane.— Three asylums, large and filled, at Austin, Terrell, San Antonio, all excellent buildings with modern conveniences; and everything is done for the comfort and improvement of the afflicted that money and science can do.

Destitutes.

The state makes no provisions for the care of the destitute, except orphan children; but many counties have "poor-farms," and several cities have hospitals for the poor and afflicted.

The Buckner Orphans' Home has established in the city of Dallas a Children's Hospital for the treatment of maimed, deformed, and chronically diseased destitute children, whether orphans or not. The location is admirable, improvements modern, and is furnished with bath-rooms, operating-room, and every essential feature. A home for aged women is in operation at Dallas.

Orphan Children.— The Masonic fraternity has established an orphanage with splendid buildings at Fort Worth during the past year.

The Dickson Colored Orphanage at Gilmer has just been established under favorable auspices, the only colored orphanage in Texas. Address R. C. Buckner, president, or W. L. Dickson, general superintendent, both of Dallas.

There are thirteen other orphanages in the state, including the Methodist and the Odd Fellows at Corsicana, the Buckner Home at Dallas, Catholics at Galveston and at San Antonio.

Rescue homes should have been mentioned elsewhere in this report. There are such institutions in operation in several cities in

Texas for the purpose of reclaiming and finding suitable homes and employment for such unfortunate women as can be induced to reform.

UTAH.

BY GRACE M. PADDOCK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no meeting of the legislature since the last report. The people of Utah have already donated more than $100,000 to the sufferers from the recent mining disaster at Scofield, Utah. During the year the Catholic orphanage in Salt Lake City has received a donation of $50,000 from Thomas Kearns. In the future it will be known as the Kearns Orphanage. I believe there is a sentiment in Utah in favor of the state caring for the insane.

A. Delinquents.

Criminals.— The criminals in Utah are confined in the state penitentiary and the city and county jails. The population of the state prison at the last biennial report was 171. The prison has a good library of 1,300 volumes.

The Vicious.— The Women's Rescue Home, a private charity, located at Salt Lake City, cares for erring women and girls. With this exception there is no place but the jails for this class.

Insubordinates.— The State Industrial School takes charge of insubordinate children. At last report the population was 25,— 1 girl and 24 boys.

B. Defectives.

Poor in Poorhouses.— Salt Lake County supports a good almshouse. The population averages about 80.

Destitute Children.— There are only two places for the care of destitute children in Utah, the Orphans' Home, a private charitable institution, unsectarian, and the Kearns Orphanage, a Catholic institution, both located at Salt Lake City. The Kearns Orphanage has at present a population of 85 children. They are engaged in erecting a new orphanage, as the old one is very much overcrowded.

The Sick and Injured.— There are two hospitals in Salt Lake City, the Holy Cross Hospital, Catholic, and the St. Mark's Hospital,

Episcopalian. The Holy Cross Hospital will accommodate from 75 to 80 patients, average number 60. Neither of these institutions is a charity, though both take some free patients.

C. Defectives.

The Blind.— The state supports a school for the blind, deaf, and dumb, located at Ogden, Utah. This school averages about 20 patients. I believe it is very well conducted.

Feeble-minded Children.— There is no provision for this class.

The Insane.— Insane asylum population at last report, 273.

VERMONT.

BY J. EDWARD WRIGHT, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of legislature since last report.

$125,000 was bequeathed to the Kellogg-Hubbard Library, in Montpelier, by the late John E. Hubbard.

Public sentiment is largely in favor of state care of the insane.

More effort is made to do away, as far as possible, with all mechanical restraint in the hospital for the insane.

There has been no noteworthy change from statistics of last report. The number of insane in the state hospital is 525; in Brattleboro Retreat, 175. Total, 700. But I am told that there are more than the total (700) mentioned above, in homes, private institutions, and poorhouses.

VIRGINIA.

BY WILLIAM FRANCIS DREWRY, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Appropriations were made to enlarge the accommodations at the state hospitals for the white and the colored insane, though not enough to meet the requirements of these unfortunates. A determined fight was made to have the state prison enlarged and improved, but without avail. A bill providing for the establishment of a colony for sane epileptics, carrying an appropriation of $35,000, passed the Senate almost unanimously; but, owing to the lateness in the session, it failed to get to a vote in the House, though a personal canvas

showed that a majority of the members favored it. A reformatory for colored youths was chartered, and a small appropriation made toward its maintenance. This worthy project is being fostered by private charity. The law regulating commitment of the insane was so amended that it requires a judge of court or one justice of the peace and two physicians to adjudge one insane.

The sentiment in Virginia respecting the care of the insane is that they should have good, kind care and best professional treatment, that as far as possible they should be taken promptly to the state hospitals, and not permitted to remain in jails and county poorhouses; that the state should continue the policy of controlling the care and treatment of the insane, and by no means permit the establishment of local institutions such as exist in one of the north-western states. There is no desire or disposition to change the present methods of caring for the insane, except to elevate the standard in every way possible whenever the finances of the state will admit of it.

A. Delinquents.

At end of last fiscal year the population of the penitentiary was distributed as follows: In penitentiary: white men, 222; colored men, 981; white women, 2; colored women, 58; total, 1,263. At state farm: white men, 56; colored men, 197; total, 253. At other places, 28 colored men. Total convicts, 1,544.

A reformatory for white youths is located near Richmond city, where more than 100 boys are cared for, trained in industrial occupations, etc. A reformatory for colored youths has recently been opened near the city of Richmond. In several cities the law provides for the employment of a number of law-breakers on the public works, etc.

B. Destitutes.

The poor and destitute are comfortably, though very plainly, cared for in almshouses. Nearly every county and city has its own almshouse. There are no available data as to the number in the poorhouses.

Destitute children are cared for in various asylums conducted by private organizations, religious organizations, secret offers, etc.

The injured and indigent sick always get accommodations and

treatment in the various hospitals in the cities and many of the towns.

C. Defectives.

The Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind, at Staunton, had last session 137 deaf pupils and 58 blind ones; total, 195. At this time, there are over 200 pupils in the school. The school is supported principally by the state (being a state institution).

No state provision for feeble-minded children, they being looked after by private charity organizations, etc.

The Insane.— 2,800 insane in state hospitals. There are probably 20 or 30 in county poorhouses. There are 250 insane throughout the state for whom there is no room in the state hospitals now.

WASHINGTON.

No report.

WEST VIRGINIA.

BY PROFESSOR THOMAS C. MILLER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Home for Incurables at Huntington has been opened, and is filling up rapidly, thus providing for a class that has not been properly cared for heretofore. Although the building for the Girls' Industrial School at Salem is incomplete, it is in use; and 45 girls have been admitted, some of whom have been placed in good homes. Girls from eight to eighteen years of age are received, and, besides receiving instruction in the common branches, are taught housekeeping and other means of earning a living.

Among the improvements at the insane asylum at Weston recently, are a new modern bakery and an annex to the colored hospital. An annex will soon be needed at the Spencer Asylum, for which provision will doubtless be made.

Under the efficient supervision of Mr. S. A. Hawk, warden, the state penitentiary at Moundsville has become almost self-sustaining; and the discipline has reached a good degree of perfection. Hygienic conditions seem to be fair at all our institutions, as the death-rate is low.

The corner-stone for a new building for the Boys' Reform School at Pruntytown will be laid soon, and additional grounds and equipment provided for.

An effort will be made at the next legislature to separate the blind from the deaf and dumb, all of whom have heretofore been cared for in the one institution at Romney.

Since its organization a little more than a year ago, the Children's Home Society has found homes in good families for more than 100 destitute children; and this good work has just begun.

Taken altogether, we think West Virginia is making good progress in her efforts to care for her destitute and delinquent classes.

I have not received full statistics from all the institutions, but approximately they are about as follows: —

Hospital for the Insane.— At Weston, 945 whites, 68 colored; at Spencer, 389. Total, 1,402.

Home for the Incurables, about 100; Industrial School for Girls, 30; Reform School for Boys, about 175; deaf and dumb, about 135.

Penitentiary.— White males, 359; colored, 216; females, 14. Total, 589.

WISCONSIN.

No report.

WYOMING.

No report.

CANADA.

BY MRS. WILLOUGHBY CUMMINGS.

It is a most encouraging fact that the important subject of the care of the aged and infirm poor seems to be attracting more of the attention of thinking people, besides the workers connected with charitable institutions, than was formerly the case. It is also a matter for the deepest thankfulness that the vagrancy act of the Dominion has at last been amended, so that it is no longer a disgrace

to our country that an aged person who has committed no offence against the law, save that of poverty, can be treated as a criminal and committed to jail as a vagrant. For several years the National Council of Women have petitioned the government through the several ministers of justice in turn for this amendment,— Hon. Mr. Dickey, Hon. Oliver Monet, and Hon. Mr. Mills; and, while each minister acknowledged the necessity for the same, and incorporated it in a bill, by a strange fatality, each session, the amendment was not reached before the House adjourned, until the last session had also almost neared its end, when the amendment aforesaid was finally passed, and has therefore become law.

The National Council of Women of Canada have felt for several years past that, as their work was to be that of "mothering" those whom in any way they could aid, that class of the community which may be designated as "the aged and infirm poor" should especially claim their attention.

For this reason one of the standing committees of the Council is that on "the care of the aged and infirm poor"; and in each local council throughout the Dominion a sub-committee of ladies assists the standing committee by furnishing them with any particulars bearing on the subject.

By this means a great deal of valuable information has been gathered, some of which, as briefly as possible, I will try to outline.

Province of Ontario.

There are in Ontario 40 houses of refuge and 18 county homes for the poor; but the number must be largely increased to make provision for those who are now in the jails.

Toronto.— The number of aged and infirm poor who last June were in the 5 institutions into which they are received is as follows: House of Industry, 243; House of Providence, 691; Aged Woman's Home, 57; the Church Home, 35; Old Folks' Home, 23. Total, 1,049. At the same time the number of aged and infirm poor who have been committed to the city jail as vagrants averages 25. The cost of living per capita in the said institutions is: House of Industry, $1.50 per week; House of Providence, $0.50 to $2.00 per week; Aged Woman's Home, $7 to $12 a month; Church Home, $5 to

$16 a month; Old Folks' Home, $5 upwards per month. Through the kindness of some generous people weekly excursions on the water or to the country have been provided for some of the aged poor this summer, similar to the children's fresh air outings, and have been a source of great pleasure to those who have shared them. The poor in the neighboring county are cared for in the county poorhouse. Outdoor relief is given by the House of Industry, the City Relief, and directly by the Municipal Council through a paid agent. In the jail the aged and infirm poor, who have been committed under the vagrancy act, do not wear prison garb, and are given what is known as hospital fare. Several of the aged poor have been recommitted many times, some even committing some slight breach of the law in order to be sent back to jail. The fact that the warden is kind and sympathetic may, in a measure, account for the fact that some of these old people look upon the jail as a home.

Hamilton.— In the House of Refuge the poor are housed by the municipality and receive the usual government grant. Poor from the neighborhood are frequently sent to the Refuge, and are paid for by the municipality wherein they resided. In the jail the aged and infirm vagrants are treated as to food and dress as are the other prisoners. Many prefer to be committed to the jail for the winter, so as to have their liberty during the summer months, as it is sometimes difficult for those who have left of their own desire to re-enter the Refuge.

London.— An aged people's home receives both men and women. It has a government grant, and is under the supervision of the Young Women's Christian Association. The city has a Poor Relief Officer and Inspector, whose duties are to inspect and relieve deserving cases from the City Poor Fund. Many charitably disposed citizens help poor men through giving them coupons to the Salvation Army Workman's Hotel. Through the Charities Organization, the Young Men's Christian Association, and the King's Daughters, also, the poor are relieved; and work is provided by means of the potato patch and wood-cutting schemes. The Children's Aid Society, too, s often the means, through the Inspector, of obtaining assistance for the city's poor.

Kingston.— The municipality gives a yearly grant of $700, and the use of a building, for the House of Industry, which is aided by a grant from the provincial government and private subscriptions.

During the last eighteen months several men and women were committed to jail as vagrants without any charge against them of law-breaking. An effort has been made to establish a poorhouse for Kingston and the adjoining counties.

Winnipeg.— No poorhouses exist, as the charitable institutions are able to deal with all cases that require relief. In Manitoba, as in Ontario, no law exists to compel relatives who are in a position to do so to maintain their needy relations.

Mrs. Bryce Convenor of the Winnipeg sub-committee says: "Quite a number of old people, particularly old women, are gathering into our city; and it is becoming a problem what to do with them, for they object so strongly to going into an institution. When they are infirm, they are sent to the Home for Incurables. Sometimes in winter the City Relief Committee has to supply one single old woman in a room with as much fuel as would warm a dozen and do their cooking as well; and it is sometimes proposed to put four of them to live together in one apartment or small house. It is sad to find that sometimes the relatives of old people plan to get the city to pay for keeping those they are under a moral obligation to support."

Ottawa.— Has several institutions where the aged poor are cared for, and outdoor relief is given by the Associated Charities.

Rat Portage.— The aged poor are cared for by such organizations as the Relief Committee in connection with the Humane Society, assisted with municipal grants. Should they be committed to jail, they are treated as are the other prisoners.

Province of Quebec.

Montreal.— Montreal reports that, while no provision for the care of the aged poor is made by the municipality, the Roman Catholic church provides the Grey Nunnery, the St. Bridget's House of Refuge, the Hospital St. Vincent de Paul, and numerous other institutions, and, also, in some cases provides a kind of insurance by which the poor help to provide beforehand for such a shelter. The Jewish community, through the Hebrew Young Men's and Ladies' Societies, provide by private subscription for the support of their aged poor, who, for the most part, are boarded out. The principal Protestant institutions are the House of Industry and Refuge, the

Ladies' Benevolent Society, which takes in old women; and the churches often support their poor in these institutions. The various national societies also look after their own poor. The boarding-out system, except in the case of the Jewish poor, is not adopted in Montreal, as it is almost exclusively in the rest of the province of Quebec. In the Montreal jail were found poor people placed there under the vagrancy act, the governor stating that many of them preferred the temporary shelter of the jail in the winter, in order to be free to go where they pleased in the summer, when it is easier for them to procure at least a bare subsistence. Among this number were also a certain proportion of senile imbeciles who cannot be legally committed to hospitals for the insane, and who therefore remain in jail, being recommitted every six months, if there is no room for them in benevolent institutions.

In the other part of the province of Quebec the boarding out system is so generally provided that to the inquiry made of thirteen of the sheriffs of county jails only two cases of the aged poor in these penal institutions were reported. The old people so boarded out are well treated, as a rule, as it is believed by the Habitants that a special blessing comes upon the house where one of these old paupers lives.

Quebec.— There is no municipality poorhouse in that city, but four institutions belong to the Roman Catholic church and to other philanthropic societies. In that province the legislature gives grants of from $200 to $300, to assist the institutes named.

For the Quebec sub-committee Mademoiselle Routhier reports the fact that a priest of the Roman Catholic church, having made a visitation of the province of Quebec in order to investigate the condition of the aged and infirm poor, has since his return preached some sermons on the subject that have attracted a great deal of attention. The provision made for the care of these people he considers to be quite inadequate, especially for people of feeble mind. In some villages he found there were as many as 15 of the latter class of defectives unattended, and a real misery to themselves and others. As a result of his inquiries, the archbishop has authorized the establishment of another institution for the care of the infirm poor.

Prince Edward's Island Province.

Charlottetown.— No provision is made by the municipality for the care of the class named. Two small houses, the gift of a private individual, are used for that purpose, but are quite inadequate.

There is a government poorhouse for the province, but it is inadequate for the purpose. Of the 60 inmates, many are idiot and imbecile persons. There are no private wards, so sick and well are all together.

Nova Scotia Province.

Halifax.— In the city of Halifax a well-managed municipal poor asylum, and in the county of Halifax a farm for the poor, provide good accommodation for the aged and infirm poor who by the law of Nova Scotia are never committed to jail as vagrants. The provincial legislature does not give grants for the erection of poorhouses. Outdoor relief is supplied by voluntary subscriptions,— voluntary in the fullest sense, because they are unsolicited,— and the fund so supplied is administered by a city official.

New Brunswick Province.

St. John.— There are county poorhouses, charitable institutions, and the poor are also farmed out by auction to the lowest bidder. An effort is being made to increase the number of poorhouses. It is proposed that neighboring counties join together in the erection of such institutions, where the population is sparse. Overseers of the poor are appointed; and outside relief is given, when needed, from public funds by the Almshouse Commission, after strict investigation. The legislature gives no financial assistance to the poorhouses in this province.

British Columbia Province.

Victoria.— There is a Municipal Old Man's Home for those over sixty years of age who have lived a certain number of years in the city. A home for old women is partially supported by the municipality. The Friendly Help Society and the Benevolent Society also care for the aged poor. There is no law compelling those who should do so to care for their aged poor.

Vancouver.— In this comparatively new city there has been no occasion as yet for the erection of a poorhouse, as the isolated cases of aged poor people are cared for by the charitably disposed.

Mrs. Hill, on behalf of the New Westminster sub-committee, makes the following report: "As far as we know, there is no provision made on the mainland of British Columbia for our poor, aged, and infirm women. At Kamloops there is a home for men, and at the Royal Columbian Hospital in our city there is provision made for them, where they are cared for at the expense of the provincial government; but for the poor women there is nothing. The local council have cared for those cases that we have known of; and, fortunately, they were few."

A very cheering report is made by Mrs. Cameron, of Vernon, who says: "I fear I have no report to send concerning the care of the aged and infirm poor, for so very little of that comes under our notice. Vernon is a city of nearly all young people; and any case of want or infirmity, which is very, very rare, is always attended to by the several churches."

A fact that became apparent from the reports received in this way was the cause of further investigation. While in Ontario and in some of the other provinces is the sad story of the commitment of the aged poor to jail for no other crime save that of poverty, it was found that in the provinces of Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Quebec, such a state of things was practically unheard of. On looking into the matter, it was discovered that an excellent law exists in these provinces, which makes it compulsory upon the relatives of the poor to contribute to their maintenance, when they are in a position to do so. That there should be any need of such a law is, indeed, a blot on the Christianity of the day; but that the need is, unfortunately, a very real one, all charity workers well know.

The local councils of Ontario have therefore petitioned the Ontario legislature to enact such a law for this province. The premier received the deputation very kindly, and has since written concerning the matter, "I shall be very glad if some time the relief so strongly pressed upon us by the local councils can be afforded."

CUBA.

BY M. R. SUAREZ, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT DEPARTMENT OF CHARITIES, HAVANA.

Notes from Cuban Relief Department.— Cuba, in former days and prior to the revolution of 1895, had comparatively few cases of chronic paupers and a small percentage of professional beggars on the island, more especially around Havana and its provinces. Within the limits of the city of Havana proper, as in every other large city, there was a goodly number of poor people, who, although barely able to eke out an existence, were not a burden on the government. The condition of affairs in this respect was better in the outlying rural districts than with the city poor, whose needs were greater and sources of provision less. There also existed the larger and more important element of the middle class of well-to-do families, who, although not of independent means, lived in comparative ease and comfort through provisions made by men of the families in their respective pursuits.

One significant fact merits special attention in connection with this latter class of people, and will, in many instances, account for their present condition. As a general thing, this class of people had let life slip along, regardless of all economic principles. The natural resources of the country, its great wealth, the facilities for earning a livelihood, together with the characteristic peculiarities of the race, were facts not likely to cultivate that spirit of thrift and foresight so necessary to insure against future reverses. Such families were fostered by the care of a father, brother, or son, whose work once stopped, the whole domestic structure would crumble to ruin. Then, too, for some years back an economic crisis had been threatened, owing to the low price of sugar. Business became slack, and the enervating influences of general discontent permeated all classes of society.

Subsequently the revolution of 1895 loomed up, and a period of trying ordeals began for every one, and a great number of self-supporting families left for the field. The war with its violence and long train of horrors shook the whole community from its very foundation. A general paralyzation of business followed. People emigrated in great numbers. Prisons were filled, and the rural folk were con-

centrated into towns, and misery reigned supreme. Many of the wealthier families lost their homes and properties, thereby becoming bankrupt; the poor became beggars; and the well-to-do, after selling the remnants of their belongings, became destitute.

Such was the condition of affairs on the first day of American occupancy of this province. Some 17,000 to 20,000 persons, of both sexes and of all ages and conditions in life, roamed around the city, either destitute, sick, or starving. It was then that General Ludlow, ably seconded by Captain Greble, initiated the relief of the destitute, and organized a complete and perfect system of relief service; and it can well be said that the department commander, although at that time overwhelmed with other pressing and important duties, took the time to lend this most humane work his attention and earnest support.

First, acting under instructions from the department commander, emergency rations from the subsistence department were issued for the immediate relief of the department through the various commands of the city guards. In the mean time the various orphan asylums, homes, and other charitable institutions were visited; and their needs, as well as those of the destitute of the city and outlying rural districts, were ascertained and reported to the department commander.

On Jan. 25, 1899, General Order No. 5, Headquarters Department of Havana, was issued; and the relief work throughout the department was formally established, Captain Greble being placed in charge. The amount of work done, and the devotion and kindness displayed by the latter in personally caring for and attending to the needs of the destitute of Havana and outlying rural districts, cannot well be known without being appreciated.

The general office of Cuban relief work was at first located at La Punta, one of the extreme ends of the town; and five relief stations were established at various points of the city, namely: Relief Station No. 1, at Belascoain and Zanja Streets; Relief Station No. 2, at Castillo de la Punta; Relief Station No. 3, at Campo Marte; Relief Station No. 4, at Vedado; Relief Station No. 5, at Quinta de Hijiene, in Cerro. The city was divided into five districts; and temporary stations were established at Campo Cabaña, and the camps of the artillery barracks at the reservoir and at Jesus del Monte. Rations were issued from the temporary stations by the artillery officers. The destitute of Regla and Guanabocoa were

relieved by the alcaldes of those towns, to whom rations in bulk were sent by wagon trains. The other outlying towns in the department had their destitute and sick cared for by officers specially detailed for that work, who were sent out at stated periods in charge of wagon trains, the system adopted being that an officer would be sent through those outlying districts to take the names of all destitute in the section he was to cover.

From Jan. 16, 1899, to June 30, 1899, the following rations were issued: —

Through relief stations to the poor of Havanna	1,292,800
To charitable institutions and hospitals	103,900
To the following towns in the department:	
Guanabocoa, Regla, Luyano, Santa Maria del Rosario, Cotorro, San Francisco de Paula, and other small towns, from wagon trains	247,000
Total	1,643,700

During the above period a monthly average of 240,000 rations were issued, at a cost of about $21,000, this amount feeding about 58,526 families, composed of about 199,246 persons.

The relief service has not only been fruitful in feeding the hungry and saving many lives, but has, along with public sanitation, been a very important factor in bringing down the high rate of mortality shown by statistics at the beginning of 1899, a decrease of over fifty per cent. being noticed in the mortality list for December, 1899, compared with January preceding.

By July and August of 1899 the condition of affairs had so materially changed that most of the indigent of the locality had gained physical strength, and many of them had found work. Therefore, a movement was made toward sifting out certain cases; and the number of rations was cut down to about 150,000 per month, at a cost of about $15,000. By September only a few men, who were either too old to work or who were sick and had families to support, remained on the destitute list. Women who were found to be working were dropped from the list; but there still remained a number of destitute widows, young women, girls, and boys. Rations were further cut down to about 70,000 per month, charitable institutions and asylums included. Since October, when this department began the purchase of rations from funds appropriated fo that purpose

from the customs of the island, to Dec. 31, 1899, the expense of the department has been about $6,000.

In September, Relief Station No. 2, at La Punta, was closed, this with a view to bringing the work of the department to its proper limit and as an initial step toward the gradual disappearance of all the relief stations, the last one being discontinued from Dec. 31. 1899.

At the closing of the relief stations the list of destitute showed 328 male adults, old, sick, or unemployed; 2,226 female adults; and 3,429 orphan children, of both sexes, aged from one to twelve years.

To counteract the tendency among the indigents to pauperization, which was becoming developed, owing to the time they had been wholly dependent upon government support, and to oblige them to seek some means of self-support, this department on Jan. 1, 1900, with the sanction of the department commander, determined to reorganize the service in such manner that only the really deserving cases should be relieved. The work is now carried on in this way: after a thorough investigation made of each case, only the extremely destitute ones are attended to, and all possibility of misplaced charity is carefully avoided. By this means the expense of the department has been very materially decreased, to about $3,500 per month, all items included.

The question now to be considered is the disposition of the able-bodied destitute, widows and orphans, and permanent relief for the old and infirm, and of that class of poor, weak creatures who will always be dependent upon the public. Orphan girls are partially provided for by existing asylums, and another large institution opened in Compostela Street under the auspices of the military governor of Havana. As yet no adequate provision has been made for orphan boys; but it is understood that a project for a school of ample capacity, similar to that to be opened in Compostela Street for girls, is being considered by the military commander of the island, General Wood. Such an institution would be very much in order, as would also the establishment of an eleemosynary institution, or almshouse, suitable for the needs of the class of people above referred to.

There still remains a fair percentage of destitute families belonging to the better class, who feel their situation keenly, and who have been forced to accept charity only after the most trying circumstances.

Among this class are found women of refinement and education, who, although having accomplishments, lack the means and opportunity of using them to advantage.

There are others, too, able-bodied and skilled in various domestic arts, as sewing, embroidering, cigarette-making, etc. These women, on account of the scarcity of work, are unable to earn a subsistence, and consequently find the struggle beyond their resources. As the supply of this class of labor at present greatly exceeds the demand, they will have to drift along for a time until the condition of the country so adjusts itself as to offer a more profitable field for their labor.

Work in Havana is scarce and at the same time unremunerative, and women who have been unaccustomed to work find the fact the more aggravating on account of their inexperience and lack of that skill in labor which always has a better and readier demand. Perhaps some sort of co-operative workshops might be established with the government support, and some well-organized system of a labor exchange for women, which would be the means of helping the willing class to get work. The field for women workers has heretofore been quite limited in Cuba, and they have not been trained to work their way in the world; and, under the present unfavorable circumstances, adversity comes hard to them. They lack the courage and spirit to cope with such hardships, and it will be some time before they can be brought to realize their position and gain sufficient confidence in themselves to go before the world to earn a livelihood. But the education and improvement which will naturally follow the new condition of matters, along with the stern persuasion these people will feel toward coming forward in the struggle for life, will be the real factors in working out this problem of ameliorating the condition of the working class of women.

When the men realize the fact that agriculture offers them the only really profitable field for labor, and decide to go into the country, leaving the women to take their places in the city, a much better condition of affairs will exist.

That the poor of Havana duly appreciate what has been done for them by the American authorities and people is apparent, and on many occasions evidences of their gratitude have been noted. The poor people generally prefer work to rations, as by this means they are assured lodgings.

At present the Department of Charities for the Island of Cuba has been established by General Wood, in order to organize the charities of the island. Major E. St. J. Greble, a hard worker and noble man, has been put in direct charge of this work. Mr. Homer Folks, of New York, has been invited by the military authorities of Cuba to co-operate in the organization of these services; and he is at present lending the department the valuable assistance of his counsel, his wide experience in such matters, and his brilliant intellect.

MEXICO.

BY DR. PLUTARCO ORNELAS.

Mexico, as an independent and free country, has but recently been born. With the epic struggle which began in 1810 and ended in 1821, she conquered her independence; with the long series of civil wars that followed, up to the establishment of the Constitution of 1857, with its amendments now in force, she conquered her liberty; and, with the advent of General Diaz to the government of the republic in 1876, those two conquests were affirmed and a third one added,— the conquest of peace.

The Constitutional party, with its Bill of Rights and programme of civil liberty, gained at last the victory, at the cost of much blood and untold suffering.

The Constitution of 1857 became the rule of the country, thus completing its organization into a federal republic. This document, like the one signed by the patriots of 1776 at Philadelphia, and which is the pride of the great American people, awakens also the pride of every good son of Mexico, it being, with reference to civil rights, as just and as humane a code as any ever written for the good of man. Says the Constitution: —

Article 1. The Mexican people recognize that the rights of man are the basis and the sole object of social institutions.

Art. 2. In the Republic all are born free. Slaves who set foot upon the national territory recover, by that act alone, their liberty, and have a right to the protection of the laws.

Art. 3. Instruction is free.

Art. 4. Every man is free to adopt the professional, industrial pursuit or occupation which suits him, the same being useful and honorable, and to avail himself of its products.

Art. 5. No one shall be obliged to render personal services without just compensation and without his full consent.

Art. 6. The expression of ideas is free except in case it attacks morality, the rights of a third party, provokes some crime or misdemeanor, or disturbs public order.

Art. 7. The liberty to write and to publish writings on any subject whatsoever is inviolable.

Art. 8. The right of petition, exercised in writing, in a peaceful and respectful manner, is inviolable.

Art. 9. No one may be deprived of the right peacefully to assemble or unite with others for any lawful object whatsoever.

Art. 10. Every man has a right to possess and carry arms for his security and legitimate defence.

Art. 11. Every man has a right to enter and go out of the Republic, to travel through its territory and change his residence without the necessity of a letter of security, passport, safe conduct, or other similar requisite.

Art. 12. There are not, nor shall there be recognized in the Republic, titles of nobility or prerogatives or hereditary honors.

Art. 13. In the Mexican Republic no one may be judged by special law nor by special tribunals.

Art. 14. No retroactive law shall be enacted.

Art. 15. Treaties shall never be made for the extradition of political offences nor for extradition of slaves.

Art. 16. No one may be molested in his person, family, domicile, papers, and possessions except in virtue of an order written by competent authority.

Art. 17. No one may be arrested for debts of a purely civil character.

Art. 18. Imprisonment shall take place only for crimes which deserve corporal punishment.

Art. 19. No detention shall exceed the term of three days, unless justified by a writ showing cause of imprisonment and other requisites which the law establishes.

Art. 20. In every criminal trial the accused shall have the following guarantees: —

1. That the grounds of the proceedings and the name of the accuser, if there shall be one, shall be made known to him.

2. That his preparatory declaration shall be taken within forty-eight hours, counting from the time he may be placed at the disposal of the judge.

3. That he shall be confronted with the witnesses who testify against him.

4. That he shall be furnished with the data which he requires and which appear in the process, in order to prepare for his defence.

5. That he shall be heard in defence by himself or by counsel, or by both, as he may desire. In case he could have no one to defend

him, a list of official defenders shall be presented to him, in order that he may choose one or more who may suit him.

Art. 21. The application of penalties, properly so called, belongs exclusively to the judicial authority.

Art. 22. Punishments by mutilation and infamy, by branding, flogging, the bastinado, torture of whatever kind, excessive fines, confiscation of property, or any other unusual or extraordinary penalties, shall be forever prohibited.

Art. 23. In order to abolish the penalty of death, the administrative power is charged to establish, as soon as possible, a penitentiary system.

Art. 24. No criminal proceedings may have more than three instances. No one shall be tried twice for the same offence, whether by the judgment he be absolved or condemned. The practice of absolving from the instance is abolished.

This chapter is the truest revelation of the social station of the Mexican people, and no pen can decry it no matter what the dictates of prejudice or administration may be toward a country which has known how to gain liberty and is determined to cultivate those civic virtues that give cohesion to society, protection to the hearth, and contentment to man.

If Mexico had done nothing else for the common good of society than to proclaim liberty for man, freedom for the slave, and life for the guilty, that he may be punished in accordance with the wish of God, only master of life and death, and the true spirit of the human laws, this alone would be its legitimate title to enter the temple of human charity as one of its worthy votaries, and to take the place she occupies in the communion of modern civilized nations.

Public and Private Charities of Mexico.

With that growth and development, which I cannot follow in its innumerable details in these brief notes, has grown, *pari passu*, the work of public and private charity, that finds in a highly philosophical and humanitary foundation of republican institutions a field most richly prepared. The modest hand of charity has labored incessantly; and there has been no period in the history of Mexico in which its work of love and self-denial has not been felt in that country, sensitizing the heart and the mind of the Mexicans until that virtue of all virtues has become an attribute as natural and inseparable from their organization as their patriotism that has

distinguished them in their struggle for self-government and civil rights.

The individual examples of charity grew in this instance to be the amplest manifestation of a whole nation, inspired by the love of God, the creator of man and author of liberty. True fraternity among men, says Renan, is created by charity, not by religious faith:

Mexico counts a number of illustrious benefactors of the poor, who have built beneficent institutions and endowed them with resources for their permanent support; and the country, although still at work in the colossal task of its reconstruction, devotes no lesser part of that incessant labor to the work of charity and correction, which are a necessary complement.

The foundation of hospitals has been one of the most practical and early fruits of charity, and in the history of Mexico they are coetaneous with the conquest.

Although strongly tempted to follow here the history of these institutions, I could not do it without entering largely into the field of science, which is not my purpose in this paper exclusively devoted to introduce Mexico, my beloved country, to this National Conference of Charities and Correction of the great and noble people of the United States, as one of those countries where charity, in all its manifestations, has had a profound and extensive echo, and where that, the noblest virtue that can ever dwell in the heart of man, has revealed itself in the establishment of beneficent institutions, which, if not as large and as numerous as those of larger and more populous countries, tend, in their aims and their organization, to be equal to the best ever erected for the alleviation of suffering humanity and the improvement of perverted man.

Correction, which falls more directly under the dominion of the public administration than under the dominion of public and private charity, has attained in Mexico a remarkable state of development in its practice as well as in the legislative and judicial principles underlying it, trusting to education and public instruction as the main agency.

You will gather an accurate and correct idea of the future of this branch of moral reform in Mexico when I quote from the work of the eminent writer, Zayas Enriquez, some of President Diaz's own thoughts on the subject. "The diffusion of learning," says the illustrious statesman, "being an inestimable boon to all people and

under all circumstances, becomes a glaring necessity and a question of life and death for nations that are to be governed by democratic institutions or who are so inclined. . . .

"Let us think how much it costs society to support an ignorant man, living in idleness and in vice, whom it has to keep in jail, care for at the hospital, lodge in the asylum, and bury free in the common grave; how much that man consumes, how much he destroys, and how much he avoids to produce, being at all times a negative social value, if not a detractive agent on account of his perniciousness! If comparison is made, it will be seen that it is cheaper to educate a scientific agriculturist than to support a beggar, much more economical to turn out a physician than a bandit. The present government has so understood it, and the governors of the state have also understood it; and that is why we notice to-day an extraordinary and powerful movement in favor of public instruction, from one end of the country to the other,— not only in what refers to the increase of scholars attending them, but also to their organization, their material, and their instructing *personnel;* the old methods having been abandoned, there is being established everywhere, by law, a free, laic, and obligatory system of public schools."

Returning to public charities, it is gratifying to refer to the welcome the country has accorded the law of the 5th of June, 1899, with which the institutions founded by private legacies have received a new and powerful stimulus. This law restores to these institutions their moral personality or judicial capacity, and exempts their funds from federal taxation, organizing upon very sound basis the intervention which the government is to have upon them, in order to sufficiently guarantee to the benefactors the faithful compliance of their wishes. This law delegates the immediate care of the charitable establishments and associations to a board of commission of private citizens. The first of these commissions has been installed, and has commenced its important labors. There is much good expected from the effects of this law.

Public Charitable Institutions.

The public institutions of charity supported by the government of the Federal District are Juarez Hospital, San Andres Hospital, a Maternity and Infants' Hospital, an insane asylum for men, an in-

sane asylum for women, a homœopathic national hospital, one orphans' home, one industrial school for orphans, and one paupers' asylum.

In all these institutions the latest scientific improvements have been introduced, as well as those methods that experience has suggested to attain the best care, treatment, and education of the inmates. The supply of food is made through a central provision store, under the immediate care of the Department of the Interior, distributing on an average 1,500,000 rations a year; that is, 125,000 a month, or 4,100 daily. This service alone favorably illustrates the importance of public charity at the City of Mexico.

Alive to the scientific progress of the day, the federal government has undertaken and begun the construction of a general hospital, after the most approved plans, and due attention to the service it has to render, and with the purpose of concentrating, as far as practicable, the dispensaries of the capital into one general hospital.

All the states of the republic show a commendable zeal in supporting, continually improving their old institutions of charity, and in founding new ones, in which a most creditable exhibition is made, not only of philanthropy on the part of the citizens, but of active endeavor on the part of their respective governments, this development being more conspicuous, of course, in those states and cities better supplied with the elements of public and private wealth.

The state of Jalisco, one of the largest in the republic, prides itself, and very justly, on the extent and quality of its hospitals, asylums, and reformatory schools. Of these institutions there are 20 in Guadalajara, its capital, alone, and 1 penitentiary; 10 in other of its main cities, and 3 to be built with a recent legacy.

As a matter of illustration, I will quote briefly from some important reports I owe to the courtesy of the governors of several states in the republic.

Bethlehem Hospital, the main one in Guadalajara, capital of Jalisco, was founded, as already stated, in 1787 by Dr. Antonio Alcalde, a Catholic bishop, who spent not only his large fortune, but the largest part of his life in public charities. It is a large institution, with a capacity of 1,000 beds, which are not all occupied, except in times of epidemics. At present there are 600 patients. The building is situated in the outskirts of the city, and is 200 metres long by 150 wide. Its architecture is plain, but handsome and imposing. It is

divided into six wards, convergent to a large central vestibule, and separated by carefully cultivated gardens. Recently six more wards have been added, three devoted to maternity and three to children. It contains, besides, two departments for the insane of the two sexes respectively, a hydrotherapic department, a pharmaceutical laboratory, and the required ampitheatres for autopsies and clinical instruction. Its management is in the hands of the Executive of the state, with whose advice the superintendent, physicians, and all the necessary help is appointed, and the expenses made. The *personnel* consists of 1 medical director and 10 attending physicians, 3 pharmaceutists, and 95 hands for all service.

"The Hospicio" is devoted to the care and education of the poor, regardless of sex and age. It supports, at present, 34 infants, 55 children from two to seven years of age, 173 orphans from seven to twelve years old, 125 young ladies attending the school of arts, 83 mendicants of both sexes, and 17 aged women. This institution was founded by the prelate Don Juan Cruz Ruiz Cabanas y Crespo in 1804. It was designed by Don Manuel Tolsa, a distinguished architect of Mexico. The plan of the building is a parallelogram of 150 metres by 170. Its architecture is stately, the distinctive features of it being the portico, composed of six Tuscan columns, and the cupola of the chapel, which is regarded generally as a triumph of architectural art. It is crowned by a colossal statue of the Angel of Mercy. The building is divided in halves, and subdivided into various departments for men and women respectively. In the section assigned to men are the following departments: One for abandoned children of both sexes up to the age of seven; the orphanage, containing children from seven to twelve, where they receive a course of three years of primary instruction, after which term they enter the mechanical arts department; another department containing the mendicants and aged women, who come thither voluntarily or by order of the judicial authority. The section assigned to women is subdivided in a similar manner. They do not leave the institution at the end of their scholastic course, but devote themselves to learning several trades, among which the most important are the manufacture of flowers and the silk industries introduced in the institution by the late lamented Governor Corona, and vigorously supported by the present worthy incumbent. Another remarkable feature of this institution is the hygienic conditions it enjoys, very

much favored by the existence of twenty-three open courts, containing floral and fruit gardens, cultivated with great care and taste. The institution is altogether a model one, and has received the commendation of many intelligent philanthropists, one of them making the remark that nowhere are poor children as rich as in the Guadalajara Hospicio.

The School of Trades was established in 1852 by Don Jesus Lopez Portillo, LL.D., and has had steady growth with the help of several philanthropists, among whom distinguished himself Don Dionisio Rodriguez, who devoted his fortune and the best part of his life to the support of this institution and other similar ones. It occupies an area of 6,127 square metres, and contains schools for printing, binding, carpentry, blacksmithing, turning, tailoring, saddlery, and shoemaking. The class of instrumental music attached is one of the best in the country, and has produced artists of acknowledged merit, under the direction of the veteran and highly respected instructor, Professor Clemente Aguirre. The course of primary instruction is four years, with classes of drawing, choral singing, and gymnastics.

The penitentiary was founded by Governor Antonio Escobedo in 1840. It is a very large, handsome, commodious, and safe structure, 300 metres long by 150 wide, contains 16 halls, divided into 40 cells each. All these halls centre into a common rotunda, and each is named after a distinguished citizen of the state. It contains a school and various trades departments, including one for the correction of young offenders. The regulations of this institution, while effective, are remarkably compatible with humane and charitable principles. It contains from 850 to 860 sentenced prisoners, 180 under trial, 190 under correctional punishment, 49 under correctional detention, and 138 women. It is managed by the state; and the *personnel* of its administration consists of eleven different employees for the outdoor service and 61 for indoor work, including professors, master mechanics, teachers, and overseers.

Puebla is another state where charity has been practised with prodigal hand. One of the founders of the city of Puebla, capital of the state, was Fray Toribio de Benavente, a charitable man whose example seems to have had a decided influence in the future altruistic disposition of the inhabitants of the city of Puebla, which counts institutions of charity that bear very favorable comparison with the best in the country. These institutions are conducted with great in-

telligence and zeal, and endowed with ample and perpetual sources for a most comfortable support.

There are in the state 18 hospitals, 4 of which, the largest, are located in the capital. In 1899 there were received in these institutions 5,768 patients, of whom there were turned out 3,864 cured, 1,019 relieved; sick, 86; dead, 506; and escaped, 10.

In the state of Guanajuato is to be noticed the large number of hospitals, and the relatively small number of patients. There are 38 of these charitable institutions distributed in 32 districts, in which the state is politically divided.

At present there are in all the hospitals 774 patients. There are 2 asylums, 1 for orphans of both sexes, 1 for abandoned children, both under the tender and able management of Miss Dolores Obregon Gonzalez, sister of the present governor of the state, and 1 very successful rescue home.

The state of Mexico has 16 hospitals, 1 in the capital and the others at the seat of the various districts of the state, 1 correctional school, 1 orphanage, a paupers' asylum, several public baths and laundries, 1 penitentiary, and the necessary district and municipal lockups. A unique and very beneficial institution is a bank to help small merchants who receive credit on very small premium based on the value of their merchandise, the latter being general country and garden produce. The government is very solicitous in procuring the growth of every institution connected with the relief and education of the poorer classes.

The state of Queretaro has 7 institutions of charity, among which are to be noted the civil hospital, founded in the sixteenth century. It has a movement of patients of over 1,500 a year, and is supported by the state. The Vergara Asylum, founded by Mrs. Josefa Vergara y Hernandez, who left a very large legacy in its favor. This institution gives food, clothing, and shoes to 200 persons, and distributes 500 rations a day to the outdoor poor, assigning certain sums for the higher education of children of some state prisoners. The public and private charities of this state are very successful in suppressing mendicity, relieving and elevating the poorer classes.

The state of Yucatan has 7 institutions of charity, the principal ones being Hospital O'Horan and Hospital Porfirio Diaz. The first one is the same founded in 1542, by the religious order of San Juan de Dios, and cares for at present from 2,900 to 2,950 patients a year.

Oaxaca has 6 charitable institutions, the most important one being the General Hospital, the corner-stone of which was laid in 1867 by General Porfirio Diaz, then commander-in-chief of the eastern division of the republican army, and now president of the republic.

San Luis Potosi has 7 institutions of charity, a correctional school, and a modern penitentiary. One of the above-mentioned institutions is a magnificent asylum for sick children, founded and directed by Dr. Miguel Otero, a physician of great learning and piety. Another is a surgical charity hospital, established by Dr. Pagenstaker, a distinguished surgeon and philanthropist.

Coahuila has 4 of these institutions, the principal ones being the Correctional School of Arts and Trades, and the Beneficient House, founded by Miss Trinidad Narro Maas, devoted exclusively to female orphans, under very humane and practical regulations.

Vera Cruz has 2 institutions of charity, founded in 1700 and 1780, respectively. Hidalgo has 6; Nuevo Leon, 2; Morelos, 6; Aguas Calientes, 4; Durango, 7; Sonora, 3, and Colima, 4; and in similar average proportion have the other states of the republic.

"The bonds of charity," says Massillon, "last eternally; and let me hope that those established at this meeting, through my humble medium, between Mexico and the United States, will not be less enduring."

XIV.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Friday night, May 18, 1900.

The twenty-seventh session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was called to order in the state capitol, Topeka, Kan., by Hon. James A. Troutman, chairman of the Local Committee, on Friday night, May 18, 1900.

Prayer was offered by Rev. D. M. Fisk, D.D. Musical selections by the Modoc Club followed. The Conference was welcomed in a brief address by Mr. Troutman, of which the following is an abstract:

WELCOME TO THE CONFERENCE.

Hon. J. A. Troutman.— *Ladies and Gentlemen*,— The state of Kansas and the city of Topeka have entertained a great many conventions, some of them larger than this will be; but it is the concurrent judgment of our people that the assemblage now before me is the most significant and important that has ever gathered here. Political organizations have their functions; and the spoils, the emoluments, and the honors of official position are the incentives. Commercial organizations hold their conventions, and theirs is the incentive of profit. Fraternal and beneficiary and secret societies have conventions, but they are restricted in their character. But here is an assembly interested primarily in humanity and with only beneficent purposes.

I am glad that this Conference is held here when our charitable and penal institutions are in good hands. There have been periods in the history of this state when it was a constant and insoluble mystery to the idiots in our asylums and to the criminals in our penitentiary why they should be kept in the inside and the officers and managers on the outside. That time has gone by, and the institutions of Kansas are on the up-grade.

A large number of those present are from the East. This is probably the pioneer trip into Kansas for many of you. You have been accustomed to the narrow confines and restrictions of the East. A short time ago a gentleman from an Eastern state was riding at the rear of a train in Kansas; and he exclaimed, as he saw the immensity of the state, "why, I never was outdoors before," One of our average Western states is equal in area to Great Britain, while Texas would cover the entire map of Europe.

We have no magnificence to show you in Topeka. Topeka is noted not for its walls and moated gates, but rather for the simplicity of its homes and the virtue and sobriety of its people. We live much as you do down East. Some of us spend our winters in tropical countries and summer in arctic regions, just as you do; but at the entrance of every avenue and lane is written in plain Anglo-Saxon the word "Welcome." We welcome you all, and are glad to see so large a proportion of ladies. I think I am more glad to see the ladies than the men. A valiant fight has been made for the recognition of women in the industrial, professional, and economic walks of life, and that battle has been measurably won in Kansas; and the viragoes and Jezebels have not increased, but women of thought, of influence, and power have increased. Ladies, we welcome you.

The Governor of Kansas is essentially the host of this occasion. You came to Kansas in response to his invitation, and by the invitation of the legislature of this commonwealth. Those invitations were supplemented by others from the city and our local organizations. The governor will welcome you as the guests of Kansas. I am glad that you come at a time when the executive chair is filled by a man whose heart beats in sympathy with the purpose of this organization.

Governor W. E. Stanley was then introduced, and the following is an abstract of his address: —

THE GOVERNOR'S WELCOME.

Hon. W. E. Stanley.— *Ladies and Gentlemen*,— We are in sympathy with the great purpose that brings you together; and we are glad to welcome you to this state, stretching out from the fertile fields of Nebraska two hundred miles to the great harvest fields of Oklahoma, and from the eastern borders, touched by the great central river of the country, four hundred miles westward to the western border, resting in the shadows cast by the mountains as the setting sun hides behind them. It is a state inhabited by progressive people, who have always loved liberty and right and the cause of humanity and mercy. On the wall of this legislative chamber we have placed, in letters to be read by all men, the name of the man who in the early days was called a fanatic,— old Osawatomie John Brown, who among the leaders of liberty in Kansas laid the spark which ended in the awful fires

of Appomattox, and which burned up the last vestiges of slavery, and made not only Kansas but the nation free.

We talk about our great products, our immense crops of corn and wheat; about the extent of our herds, grazing on the highlands and lowing in the plains. We boast of our richness in zinc and lead and oil and gas and coal. We have been busy, in a pushing, rushing, crowding fashion, to get rich and make homes; but it is time that we were asking what we have been doing for the unfortunate people who need the kind, protecting hand and the fostering care of the state. It is only recently that we have given attention to that. I welcome you, members of this Conference, that out of your consultation and experience you may give us something that will help us to put our institutions upon a higher and better plane, that we may do more for these unfortunates than we have ever done before.

My friends, you are here on a serious mission. No body of men and women ever had more important and responsible questions to discuss and solve than you have. I regret to say that in this state in the past the care of our poor unfortunates in every institution has been made subject to the chances and the hazards of politics. I trust that the time will come, on swift wings and ready feet, when, whatever party goes up or goes down, it cannot affect the good of those who are the wards of the state, and whose care ought to be its most sacred concern. I trust that the time will come in Kansas and throughout the country when the person who is put in the charge of an institution to care for dependants and unfortunates shall require no other recommendation except his fitness for the position. We have found that even in the penitentiary of the state there are men who respond to the touch and to the call of kindness, and who by an honest life and an honest walk will try to return some kind of compensation for the favors shown them; and I believe, if you can find it in the penitentiary, you ought to find it in more marked degree among the little boys and girls in our institutions. Yes, we are our brother's keeper. Christian civilization has given the lie to the old question of Cain.

I welcome you, then, to this work; and I trust that, when you go home, you will go with new ideas and resolves and purposes, and that the cause of humanity may be advanced through your influence.

After more music by the Modoc Club, Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D., of St Paul, was introduced, who spoke in substance as follows: —

ABSTRACT OF REMARKS BY REV. S. G. SMITH, D.D.

Mr. Chairman, your Excellency, Ladies and Gentlemen,— May I say a few words about the people who have come here to attend this Conference? These men and women who have come from the various states are simple, plain workers. They have not come so

much to discuss great questions as to tell their experience. It is an experience meeting. These men and women have been digging in the trenches where the swamps are most poisonous. They have been fighting on the battle line of humanity where the bullets have whistled swiftest; and they are coming back now to sit down and talk it over by the camp-fire, to say how the battle is going. We are, I hope, a progressive company of men and women. Perhaps I can illustrate what I mean by an anecdote I heard the other day of an old negro in Southern Illinois. He had a son, a young man, who was something of a dude; and the old father thought he would take him to task. So he said: "Mose, what fo' you wear yer gallusses crossed in front? I kyant tell whether yer goin' or comin'." These people do not wear their "gallusses" crossed in front. You can always tell that they are going forward. It is a progressive company of men and women.

We have come to talk over these matters. We shall not always agree, because you cannot in the things that you are doing. The only harmonious and perfect theories are those that are never tried. When we are in the thick of the conflict, we cannot be so sure what is perfect.

We have women in our number. I cannot tell what their views may be. I only know that the women of this Conference and their sisters in this kind of work represent nothing new in womanhood. The maternal heart is as old as humanity, trying to carry home love to those who are distressed and unfortunate.

One last word, and that is a word of duty. We do not agree as to the details of our work; but we agree in this, that this world is the proper cradle of human hope, in spite of sin and misfortune and insanity and pauperism and crime and all human wretchedness. We believe that it is God's world, and therefore man's world, and that these problems which weigh upon our hearts and hands will in good time be solved in the regeneration of the world.

The response to the speeches of welcome was made on behalf of the Conference by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.

RESPONSE BY MR. SANBORN.

Mr. SANBORN.— *Your Excellency and Members of the Conference,*— In addressing you or any audience in Kansas, my thoughts recur inevitably to that period, nearly half a century ago, when the old name of this magnificent prairie state first came to notice, as the index of political treachery and factional strife, culminating, after years of contention, in our Civil War. A young man then, looking forward to the active work of life,— an old man now, casting a glance backward over long-travelled ways,— my own associations

with Kansas have been most cherished and most important. Around this infant state, too long kept in its noisy and anxious cradle, heroes and statesmen, long since vanished from earth, held protracted debate and performed deeds of daring. Lincoln and Douglas, Brown and Lane, Pierce and Buchanan, Sumner and Jefferson Davis,— these and many another famous name come to mind whenever your state is mentioned. Yours is a young state with an old history,— the ancient story of pioneer hardship and protracted war. But out of these clouds, in a single generation, emerged this sunny and prosperous commonwealth of Kansas. Your woes have receded with the Indian and the buffalo, while your joys and family cares have come to you by the lightning express. It is the case of the translated saints in the familiar hymn: —

> "Quick as their thoughts their joys come on,
> But fly not half so swift away."

Not the least of these cares is the management of public charity and correction, as needful, if not quite so burdensome, in a young state as in the older ones. We are here to consider this vast and varied subject; to learn lessons and to offer advice, even if the lesson and the advice come from our own failures in a longer voyage of experiments. You remember the confident Irish pilot who took charge of the Yankee schooner on our stern and rock-bound coast, telling the skipper in joyous accents that he "knew every rock in Cohasset Harbor." Presently he ran the schooner aground. "You rascal," cried the skipper, "didn't you tell me you knew every rock in this confounded harbor?" "I did, yer anner," was the reply; "and here's one of 'em." We have struck on many shoals and reefs in our New England navigation of charities, and we are here to point them out and set warning lights and fog-horns upon them. May you have better fortune in the care of your insane, for example, than Massachusetts has lately enjoyed!

As we come hither from the East, we recognize that you are playing the game of civilization with some great advantages that we have not shared. Dwelling by the sad sea-waves, we sift out for you the best of the human grain which drifts to our shores, when cast by Europe and Asia upon the waters, as Scripture enjoins. We retain for ourselves or for return to the eastern hemisphere after many days, the blind and the deaf, the insane and the pauper, allowing you, to be sure, your fair proportion of the criminals whom mother countries benignantly confer on us. We send you capital to invest, and set you examples to avoid. And, when we recall our own slow growth, extending over two centuries and a half, we marvel at what you have achieved in half a century. In 1850, as I had occasion to say in Washington last week, there were, in all three of the states of Kansas, Colorado, and Nebraska, hardly one hundred white inhabitants and not many thousands of roving Indians, but millions

of buffaloes and wolves, now almost as extinct as dodos, Webster Whigs, and Abraham Lincoln Republicans. To-day you show us in these three enormous states millions of free, educated, and prosperous citizens, metamorphosing the desert and the bison into the granary of nations and the democratic nursery of these United States.

The session was then turned over to the President, Hon. C. E. Faulkner. Mr. Faulkner said that he had been presented with a new gavel for the occasion, but that it would not be used that night. After thanking the governor and the members of the Local Committee for their welcome, Mr. Faulkner gave the annual address (page 1).

Mr. SANBORN.— Mr. President, I rise for a mournful duty. I would like to move that the following resolution be adopted: —

Resolved, That this Conference has learned with sorrow the recent bereavement of its honored General Secretary, Rev. H. H. Hart, in the death of his wife and the mother of his children, and would extend to him its most sincere sympathy. May he who has lightened the burden of so many orphans find his own affliction alleviated by the Great Consoler!

The motion was adopted unanimously by a rising vote.

On motion of Mr. Storrs it was voted that the message should be wired immediately.

A reception to the members of the Conference tendered by the citizens of Topeka and the officers of state institutions followed in the capitol immediately upon adjournment.

SECOND SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 19.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by Dean Sykes. The following Committee on Resolutions was appointed by the President: Mr. Philip C. Garrett, General R. Brinkerhoff, Hon. Robert W. Hebberd.

Superintendent H. B. Peairs of the Haskell Institute invited the Conference to come to Lawrence to visit that institute. On motion the invitation was accepted,

Mr. F. H. Wines introduced to the Conference Señor Miguel R. Suarez, of Havana, who had come to represent "our sister republic of Cuba," also Dr. E. Sanchez Agramente, director of the Casa de Beneficencia y Maternidad, Havana.

Señor SUAREZ.— *Ladies and Gentlemen*,— We have made a great effort to come here, that we might gain from you some knowledge that we may carry back to our country. We shall certainly make careful observations, and take your advice in many matters.

The PRESIDENT.— We welcome these friends, and feel highly honored by their presence here. It is gratifying that they should have taken so much pains to come this long distance to attend our session.

The subject for the morning session was the report of the Committee on Public Policy in Caring for the Insane. The report was made by the chairman, Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D. (page 83).

A paper on "Improvements in Medical Care for the Insane" was read by B. D. Eastman, M.D., of Topeka (page 89).

A paper on "State Care *versus* State Custody" was read by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass. (page 93).

Dr. P. Ornelas was introduced as a delegate from Mexico.

Dr. Biddle, superintendent of the Hospital for the Insane, invited the delegates to visit his asylum. He gave the following facts concerning it: —

Dr. BIDDLE.— The hospital has been established about twenty years. During that time about two-thirds of the cases have proved incurable, and still remain there. Since last July we have had the satisfaction of being as successful as the average of insane hospitals in our work. During that time our discharges as restored have been more than 38 per cent. of the cases admitted. This compares well with other hospitals in the country. The government insane hospital at Washington reported for last year 34 per cent. of recoveries, and they have the advantage of receiving younger subjects than we do. Our admissions include a large number of senile, incurable cases. We have been exceedingly careful in the cases we have discharged as restored.

An invitation was given to the Conference to visit the State Reform School on Tuesday afternoon.

The Committee on Time and Place, made up of one member from every state and territory represented, was announced as follows, each delegation having chosen its own representative: —

Committee on Time and Place.— Washington, Ernest Lister; Wisconsin, A. G. Nelson; Minnesota, Professor W. W. Folwell; Colorado, C. L. Stonaker; Illinois, Charles F. Weller; Indiana, Judge S. A. Bonner; Nebraska, Dr. Charles. A. Ellwood; Maine, Edwin P. Wentworth; New Hampshire, Mrs. Follansby; Maryland, John M. Glenn;

District of Columbia, B. T. Janney; California, Sherman Smith; New Jersey, Mrs. E. E. Williamson; Missouri, William C. Nolte; Pennsylvania, F. H. Nibecker; New York, Frank Tucker; Iowa, Horace S. Hollingsworth; Ohio, M. V. Crouse; Virginia, George B. Davis; Massachusetts, Rev. J. M. Pullman; Kansas, Professor F. W. Blackmar; Michigan, C. D. Randall; West Virginia, Miss Elizabeth Clohan; Rhode Island, Dr. George F. Keene.

The Committee on Organization was announced as follows: —

Committee on Organization.— L. C. Storrs, Timothy Nicholson, Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Professor S. G. Smith, Edward T. Devine, Ernest P. Bicknell, L. D. Drake.

DISCUSSION ON INSANITY.

The discussion was opened by a few words from the chairman, Dr. Smith, who presided. Dr. Smith said that the percentage of possible recoveries was greater than is generally supposed. In Birmingham, England, they have a record of 50 per cent; Northampton has a record of 60 per cent.; and eminent alienists believe that 75 per cent. of recent cases may be cured by rational treatment. He thought it would parallel the recoveries from crime under rational treatment.

Mr. Sanborn was asked about the cost of family care. He replied that it had kept up very nearly to the cost in hospitals, but, if there were a larger number, it would be about 25 cents less per week, as it was in Scotland, where they are boarded in families.

Dr. SMITH.— The cost of buildings is eliminated.

Mr. Philip C. Garrett was asked to speak on county care.

Mr. GARRETT.— Since I had the honor of being chairman of the Lunacy Committee, some years ago, I have changed my mind on this subject. It then seemed to me that the only proper way to care for the insane was by state care. I now feel entirely in sympathy with the Wisconsin system, and the system adopted by our state, where, however, it has not been in operation long enough to warrant any authoritative statement as to the result. In almost all points touched on by Mr. Sanborn, I agree fully with him. Not only that: I would go further. It seems to me that a great deal of the institutional care ought to be avoided. The best treatment of all is the family care at home,— not of the poor chronic case, because in such cases that care can seldom be applied for a variety of reasons, but the family care of all insane when it can be had. Where it is possible through the wealth of the patient's family to treat him at home, I believe it is fre-

quently far better for his welfare and his recovery, especially with the conditions that prevail in our great hospitals. It is almost impossible to have proper treatment, as things are there. It is impossible for a physician who has all the other cares described by Dr. Smith to treat each individual case in a hospital with many hundred patients with the minute care which the case requires. Mental disease requires more care, probably, than any other; and there is greater necessity for personal knowledge of each case. The appropriations for state institutions are so small that the attendants and nurses are very inadequate; and it is not infrequently the case that the most common and ignorant persons who can be employed at low wages are the attendants in an insane hospital. The treatment and nursing of an insane patient should be by persons not only free from superstition and ignorance, but they should be by persons of great discretion, great good judgment, and great self-control,— qualities which cannot be bought for the wages of the ordinary laborer. The real remedy for the defects which make great hospitals inefficient in the treatment of the insane is much larger appropriations, so that the medical assistants to the superintendent — the corps of physicians and the corps of nurses — shall be fully competent and sufficiently numerous to handle the number of cases under their care. Those are the two points on which I would lay emphasis,— more family care and larger appropriations.

Rev. A. W. Clark, Nebraska.— I hope some one from Wisconsin will tell us whether there has been any conflict between the state authorities and the county officers in the matter of paying expenses. In Nebraska we had an experience like this: our method was unsatisfactory to our state authorities and unsatisfactory to the counties, and there was more or less conflict until 1891, when the legislature voted that the state should have entire charge, and pay all the expenses of each patient. The plan has been so satisfactory that a similar plan has been adopted for every state institution with the exception of that for the feeble-minded, and I am told there is no doubt the legislature will adopt the same method with regard to them.

Judge W. P. Lyon, Wisconsin.— The state pays $1.50 a week for each patient in the county asylums whose families are not able to support them, and there are few supported by their families. The state pays this for the patients in the county asylums belonging and chargeable to the county having the asylum. But a large majority of counties have no asylum, and their patients are distributed by the State Board of Control according to the convenience and location of the asylums in other counties; and for all such patients as have no residence,— patients at large, as we call them,— the state pays three dollars a week and the cost of the clothing used by the patient, usually from $12 to $20 a year if the patient is not destructive. Then the state charges back to the counties that are chargeable with the maintenance of those patients $1.50 a week and the cost of

clothing. That leaves $1.50 a week charged upon the state for every necessitous patient. The accounts are adjusted through the officers of the State Board of Control, the Secretary of State, and the Treasurer. The Board of Control states the account. Each county is credited with the amount due it, and the 1st of January all accounts are settled. There is no friction. We never have any trouble. Sometimes there is a question as to which county a patient is chargeable, but such cases are adjusted by the State Board of Control, and there can be an appeal from their decision to the courts; but I have been on the board four years, and I do not remember that there has been one appeal taken.

QUESTION.— Does not this method provide for all the insane?

Judge LYON.— Yes. There is not to-day in the state of Wisconsin an insane person necessarily in a poorhouse or jail or private family, and under our system there will not be while any of us are alive.

The PRESIDENT.— I am not in sympathy with the ideas expressed by the chairman of this committee and by Mr. Sanborn, of support in a way which would tax the relatives of the insane person. I believe in public care of the insane without regard to property rights. I think it would be the experience of probate judges that some classes of people who seek to relieve themselves from this burden find a way to do it. I think it is also wrong to require any property holder, if a member of his family is insane, to pay a double tax. Insanity is a misfortune which cannot be met by private means of relief. It requires the support of the public to maintain these institutions, hospitals, and asylums. It is a common misfortune. Therefore, any citizen of any state who becomes insane should have access to the institution and have public care, without any other tax than that which he should pay for the support of the institution. I think the revenue in any state from the estates of private individuals or from the contributions of relatives is very small. It is almost insignificant, yet a few people may be taxed beyond their means. This may be an intolerable burden to some, while other people are released under the law. I think it should be a public burden, and that any citizen of any state afflicted with insanity should have access to public shelter at the public cost, and only pay his portion of the tax bill. I believe there should be no more large institutions for the insane. It matters not how easy the classification or how competent the man at the head to diagnose disease, he has under him a corps of inexperienced persons, to whom he intrusts the administration of medicine and the supervision of wards. If you are to reach each patient with the skill of the head of the institution, you must not overtax him with numbers. If every Sunday morning he must go through the wards of a thousand people, his examination must be superficial. He can have but a small acquaintance with the merits of each case. He must intrust the medical regimen to the inexperienced subordinates. If you are to give the best care, put the patients in small groups, so that

the skilled head may come in contact with each patient. Let us do away with this barbarous idea that we are economical by massing people as we mass cattle. Let us destroy the large caravansary, and build up small institutions with some form of industry and as much liberty as possible. Give them wise and intelligent care, and relieve every burdened family from being compelled to make a showing of their poverty before they can get their loved ones under shelter. Let the patients come where they will be treated. Too often they do not apply in time, and the injury becomes permanent. The process of the law invites this delay. Sweep it away.

Mr. STONAKER. — I want to hear something about the system of the county paying the state for the support of all the insane committed by that county. Is that a good plan?

The chair asked Judge Kinne, of Iowa, to answer that question.

Judge KINNE. — Under the laws of Iowa each county is required to pay a certain sum per capita per month for all insane patients sent from the county. That sum is in the first instance paid by the state to the hospital, and the state is then reimbursed by each county paying that sum into the state treasury. That is not true of state patients whose residence is not found to be in any county. Such patients are supported at the expense of the state. As chairman of the Board of Control, it has been my province to visit twelve of our county institutions. We have in Iowa forty-five institutions where insane are kept, outside of state and private hospitals. Twenty-five of these are what may be called county asylums, where separate provision is made for keeping the insane apart from paupers. In the other institutions there is no such provision: they are county poorhouses. The Board of Control is directed to make a report to the legislature of the condition of the delinquent and the insane, with recommendations as to what ought to be done. No particular reference was made to this class of people; but the board thought it was a good time to find out the situation, which is no doubt the same in every state of the Union where county institutions have not been looked after. I have found in counties which boast of good colleges and schools some of the worst county institutions. We visited these institutions, and we made elaborate reports. The work was purely voluntary. We prepared written questions, but we had no power to compel them to answer. We took notes and wrote up a report; and it was suggested that it would be well, for the sake of influencing public opinion, to publish the reports and make them as effective as possible. They were given out one or two days apart, so as to keep the public interest stimulated, so that the people might understand the situation. The result was that the board recommended to the legislature the enactment of a law placing all institutions, public and private, where the insane are kept, under the supervision of the Board of Control, and authorizing

the board to visit them and prescribe rules, which must be complied with if they keep patients. This law passed the legislature by almost a unanimous vote; and, now that inspection has begun, I am sure we have taken a step twenty-five years in advance of many states in the Union.

Mr. STONAKER.— In many states there are insane in the poor-houses. The county commissioners prefer to pay for them there rather than send them to the state hospitals.

Dr. SMITH.— In Wisconsin the counties do not get the $1.50 a week unless the care reaches the standard prescribed by the board. That keeps the discipline up.

General BRINKERHOFF.— In Ohio we have given a great deal of attention to this subject. I have been on the board nearly a quarter of a century, and I have studied all methods in this and other countries. Our system is unique. I think we have come to agree almost entirely with what has been said about Minnesota. We are opposed to county care. We do not believe in it. Our system is the cottage system. Our asylums are on the Kirkbride plan. In great palaces of brick and stone we could not get the care we needed. The cottage system was first tried at Kankakee. When it was started at Toledo, it was called "General Brinkerhoff's folly." Now we have over forty houses. It is a village for the care of the insane. Each cottage has room for from forty to seventy-five. We have a close ward, where ten or fifteen persons who cannot have the freedom of the others are kept. The cottages are in a large, beautiful park; and we can make the classification better than under the Kirkbride system. We have a large building for amusements. Three-fourths of them meet at their meals three times a day, and the effect of this freedom is wonderful on the patients.

In the Constitution of 1851, in Ohio, it was provided that every person who becomes insane becomes the child of the state, and is entitled to the same care, whether rich or poor. That is the Ohio system, and we have no idea of ever departing from it. A large proportion of those who become insane come from families not able to support them, and often the insane member is the one on whom the family was dependent. When he was sane, he could pay his own expenses; but, when insane, he cannot. He is therefore cared for by the state. We believe in that.

As for the cottage system, it has many advantages. The medical care is far better. There is also more chance for employment, and we believe in the hygienic employment of the insane. But we do not believe in the county system. I believe a great many selected patients could be boarded out. Those in Gheel are selected patients. They have a little asylum on the grounds, where the patients go for observation, to find out whether they can be trusted outside. If they are not suitable to go into families, they are sent back to the institution and are cared for there. Gheel is a great institution, but it is

not applicable to this country; but we can adopt the Massachusetts plan, and it might be of advantage to the state if the patients were carefully selected.

Mr. SANBORN.— Mr. Faulkner speaks of the insignificant revenue from private patients. Massachusetts derives from such patients a larger revenue than the state appropriates for its patients. There is no complaint from the class who go as private patients.

Rev. Dr. Fisk read the announcements of the members who were to speak in the various churches on Sunday, after which the Conference adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.

Saturday night, May 19.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President, who at once transferred it to the acting chairman of the Committee on Organization of Charity, Mr. George S. Wilson, general secretary of the Associated Charities, Washington, D.C. Mr. John M. Glenn read the report of the committee prepared by the chairman, Mr. C. S. Grout, of Indianapolis, who had been prevented from attending the Conference (page 247).

A paper on "Outdoor Relief in Relation to Charity Organization" was read by Mr. Wilson (page 256).

DISCUSSION.

The discussion was opened by Mr. Frederic Almy in a brief paper.

A DELEGATE from Lincoln, Neb.— All the cases are investigated by the Charity Organization Society, and relief is given only on the recommendation of the Charity Organization Society. The city of Lincoln has about sixty thousand people, twenty thousand more than Topeka. By an arrangement between the county commissioners and the Charity Organization Society the commissioners refer every applicant for aid to the Charity Organization Society. The case is investigated thoroughly, and no cases are referred back to the county commissioners which can possibly be referred to any other source for relief. Only cases where they are aged or sick or infirm people, who cannot support themselves, are referred to the county. For other cases we try to get temporary relief from private sources. The expenditures for the county commissioners for that county amount to only about $1,000, in contrast to the $6,000 spent in To-

peka. Of course, it is public outdoor relief; but it is in the best condition that I can imagine.

However, I do object even there to public outdoor relief, solely upon the ground that it dries up the sources of private beneficence. I find it hard to raise the emergency relief sometimes necessary, because people know it can be had from the county. I think the example of Lincoln shows what can be accomplished by close co-operation between the county commissioners and the Charity Organization Society of a city. But there is this defect about the plan. The complexion of the county commissioners may change at any time, and we cannot be always sure of their co-operation; but, so long as they do co-operate, it would seem that public outdoor relief under such circumstances is comparatively safe, and is similar to the public outdoor relief given in Germany under the Elberfeldt system. Nearly all their aid comes from public instead of private sources. I do not use this as an argument in favor of outdoor relief; I only wish to show what can be done by co-operation between public authorities and private societies like the Charity Organization Society.

Miss Z. D. SMITH.— I should like to ask whether outdoor relief was given before the Charity Organization Society began to investigate, also how long the experiment has been tried. I think time may dull the perceptions of the Charity Organization Society.

A.— The county commissioners always gave outdoor relief. I think they began this co-operation with the Charity Organization Society in 1894; but it was more or less formal for a number of years, and I do not believe that it has been strict or rigid or effectual till this year.

Miss SMITH.— What has been the reduction in amount given?

A.— I cannot tell, but I have been told that they gave as much as $4,000.

Miss SMITH.— What reduction has there been in the number of families aided, for that is of more importance?

A.— I cannot say, but the records would show. There used to be a larger number of persons helped.

Mr. A. W. BUTLER.— In discussing this subject, we must take into consideration the fact that our states are organized differently. In Indiana we have a township organization. There are 92 counties and 1,016 townships. Until 1897 poor relief was paid by the counties. The township trustee was *ex officio* the overseer of the poor. He administered relief to those who came to him, drawing the funds out of the county treasury, with only such perfunctory supervision as was given by the county commissioners. At that time a plan was wisely conceived by Mr. Bicknell, then secretary of the Board of State Charities, to carefully investigate the subject of outdoor poor-relief. He obtained such information as was possible from the township trustee concerning the amount of poor-relief given and the number of persons helped. Preliminary to doing this, a law was passed provid-

ing that each township trustee should make a quarterly report of each person who received aid, giving his name, the place of his nativity, the number of persons in his family, the age and sex of each, and the number of persons in the family, not relatives, who shared in the aid. In addition to this there was to be given information as to the locality from which he came, the date, amount, and kind of relief given. These reports were to be made in triplicate, one copy to be kept by the township trustee, the others to be sent to the county auditor, and one of them forwarded by him to the Board of State Charities for study and preservation. The investigation of these reports showed such a surprising condition of affairs that the legislature of 1897 passed a law providing for the payment of poor-relief by each township, making it a local matter. The township trustee drew from the county treasury the money for the relief, and was required to make a tax levy against the township to reimburse the county. The township trustee holds the dual office of township trustee and overseer of the poor. In this last-mentioned capacity he is empowered to levy tax upon the entire property in the township, including that in cities and towns, for poor purposes. When the poor-relief became a local matter, it attracted greater attention from those to whom the official was responsible,— the voters of the township. The result was a noticeable decrease in the amount of aid given.

The next step was taken by the legislature of 1899, which enacted the present poor-law.* That provides that the township trustee shall,

* TOWNSHIP POOR-RELIEF.

HOUSE ACT No. 204.

AN ACT to regulate the administration of the relief of poor persons and prescribing certain duties of the overseers of the poor and other officers in relation thereto.

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana, that, whenever a claim for relief shall be made upon an overseer of the poor for the benefit of any persons or families of persons claiming to be poor and in distress, it shall be the duty of the overseer of the poor to carefully investigate the circumstances of such poor persons, so as to ascertain their legal residence, their physical condition of sickness or health, their present and previous occupation, their ability and capacity for labor, their ages, and the names and ages and the ability and capacity for labor, of all members of their family, and, if they are found to be in distress, the cause of their condition, if it can be ascertained. The overseer of the poor shall also inquire as to the family relationships of poor persons for whose benefit claims for relief are made, and as far as possible shall ascertain whether such persons have relatives able and willing to assist them.

SECT. 2. When the overseer shall ascertain by investigation that any poor persons or family require assistance, he shall furnish to them such temporary aid as may be necessary for the relief of immediate and pressing suffering. Before any further final or permanent relief in any case, the overseer shall consider whether distress can be relieved by other means than an expenditure of the township funds. If the poor persons applying are in good health, or if any members of their family are so, the overseer shall insist that those able to labor shall seek employment; and he shall refuse to furnish any aid until he is satisfied that the persons claiming help are endeavoring to find work for themselves. The overseer in such cases shall make all possible effort to secure employment for the able-bodied in the township where they reside, and may call upon residents of the township to aid him in finding work for such persons as are able to labor. If the poor persons applying for township aid have relatives able to assist them who are living in the township, it shall be the duty of the overseer, before giving aid a second time, to call on such relatives of the poor persons and to ask them to help their poor relatives, either with material relief or by furnishing them with employment. If any poor person applying for relief is able to labor, and refuses to work when given the opportunity, then the overseer shall refuse any further aid to such person, except admittance to the County Poor Asylum, where they shall be compelled to labor.

SECT. 3. Whenever an overseer of the poor shall have given aid other than for burial to any poor person or family to the amount of the value of fifteen dollars ($15) in any one year, or whenever the aid given has been of a less amount than the value of fifteen dollars ($15), but has extended over a period of three months, or until the next meeting of the Board of Commissioners, it shall be unlawful for the overseer to furnish any further aid to the said poor person or family until he shall have presented

before giving relief other than of a temporary character to any applicant, carefully investigate his conditions and needs, his ability to labor, whether he has friends or relatives who can assist him to work or care for him, whether he is a transient or a resident of the locality. No relief can be given to an able-bodied tramp except by supplying him work. If such a one is sick or crippled, he may be given help to take him only in the direction whence he came, unless he can show that he can be provided for in the direction in which he desires to go. In addition to these there are many other points of investigation to be made by the township trustee. He must co-operate with the Charity Organization Society or any relief-giving society or with friends. After relief has been given for three months or to the amount of $15, the overseer of the poor is required to report to the board of county commissioners a full statement of the facts and to secure its authorization before he can give more aid. This divides the responsibility, and throws on the board of county commissioners the decision whether they will authorize further relief or help through the county poor asylum, the theory of the law being that only temporary relief shall be given by the overseer of the poor.

Now as to the results. Two years ago the amount of relief given in Indiana by overseers of the poor was $388,343. 82,235 persons re-

a statement of their case to the Board of County Commissioners, with a schedule containing the following facts, namely: the full names and ages of the persons or families and of each member thereof; their previous occupation, condition of health, fitness for labor, capacity or ability for work; what near relatives, if any, they have in the township; and what effort, if any, the overseer has made to secure employment for those of them who are able to labor. On the inspection of the said schedule the County Commissioners may authorize the overseer to extend further aid to the said person to the extent of fifteen dollars ($15) or for the duration of three months. In all such cases a duplicate copy of the statement and the schedule submitted to the Board of Commissioners shall be filed by the overseer with the County Auditor, who shall transmit the same to the Board of State Charities at the same time that he transmits the duplicate copy of the overseer's record of poor-relief expenditures, as prescribed in section 2 of chapter 120, Acts of 1895.

SECT. 4. It shall be the duty of each overseer of the poor to ascertain what societies for relief of the poor, or other organization for charitable purposes, if any, exist or practise their vocation within the township of which he is trustee. Whenever the overseer of the poor finds such societies to exist, he shall make inquiry from the agents or members of the societies as to whom they are aiding in his township, and shall offer to them any information he possesses concerning the poor which may be of service to them, and shall ask them for such information with regard to poor and needy persons as they may be able to give him. It shall be the duty of the overseer of the poor to acquaint himself as far as possible with the work of all such relief societies, or other organizations for charitable purposes, operating within his township, and co-operate with them in any way which he may find to be advisable, to the end that the unnecessary duplication of relief may be avoided and the creation of new families of paupers through misguided and useless alms may cease. The overseer shall also seek the aid of such societies or organizations or their members in securing employment for those who apply to him, when they are found to be able to labor.

SECT. 5. It shall be unlawful for any overseer of the poor to aid any person who is not a resident of the township where he is found otherwise than by some form of labor, unless the said person shall be sick, aged, or crippled and unable to travel; and all overseers of the poor shall endeavor to provide some form of hard manual labor, at which they shall set any able-bodied non-resident who may apply for relief to them. It shall be unlawful for any overseer of the poor to furnish any able-bodied non-resident with transportation at the cost of the township. It shall be unlawful to furnish any non-resident who may be sick, aged, or crippled, with transportation at the cost of the township until after the overseer shall by correspondence or otherwise have ascertained beyond a reasonable doubt the legal residence of the person applying; and any transportation furnished to such persons shall be in the direction toward their legal residence, unless it is shown beyond a reasonable doubt that the person in distress has some valid claim for support or some means of support in some other place toward which he or she shall ask to be sent. Any trustee violating any of the provisions of this act shall be fined not less than $5 nor more than $20.

SECT. 6. All allowances for charitable purposes made from the public funds by any officers, either of the county or of the township, shall be reported quarterly by the County Auditor to the Board of State Charities at the same time or times as is provided for the record of the overseer of the poor in section 2 of chapter 120, Acts of 1895.

SECT. 7. All laws or parts of laws in conflict with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

ceived the aid. This new law was thought to become effective from its passage; but by reason of another provision the attorney-general decided that it did not go into full force until the 1st of January, this year. In some localities township trustees think it has operated well, in others they think it has not. Last year 64,468 persons received official outdoor relief to the amount of $320,667 in round numbers. The decrease in two years in the number of persons helped is 17,767, and in the value of relief $67,676. This year I am assured by many trustees that they will practically give no relief, and in many of those townships that have been most extravagant the relief will be cut off one-half.

Let me give you an illustration of the effect of this law in the worst township of our state. I give it as an extreme instance. In St. Joseph County, in a township with one-fourth the population of the city of Indianapolis, there was given last year $700 more relief than in the entire county of Marion, including the city of Indianapolis. The township noted gave $12,850 poor-relief. The township trustee could not be held amenable to any rule until the new law became effective. Then he had to report when he had given $15, and could give no more without authority from the board of commissioners. It had his resignation within sixty days after the passage of the law. A new trustee was appointed, and he waited thirty days before he took action. He then called the county commissioners, and said that he had 116 permanent dependants on his poor-book, and that he would turn them over to the commissioners. The poorhouse was full, but it was decided to offer these 116 dependants a chance to go there. This was done, and 3 availed themselves of the opportunity! Up to the 17th of February, which carried this trustee through the worst part of the winter, he gave less than $500 in outdoor relief; and the total amount of his expense for the year, including his own salary, I believe, will not reach $3,000. There will be a saving of $10,000 to that township from the operation of the present law.

I believe that all who have given consideration to the subject will agree that in some states, under the city system, it is possible to arrange so as to dispense entirely with official outdoor relief; but in a state like Indiana, which has grown up under conditions peculiar to itself, and where the general law of poor-relief operates over the state, we have not yet discovered a way to take that step. It was discussed by the committee which drafted the last bill. We feel, however, that we have applied charity organization principles in the new law as no other state in the Union has done, and, further, that the needy were well supplied, and no injustice was done to those who applied for aid.

Rev. DAVID MORGAN, St. Paul, Minn.—If you do not look out, you will go to the other extreme. I am going to say a word for the poor man. I associate with him. We must put ourselves in his

place. We must not give grudgingly. We must not by our stinginess put people where we would not put ourselves. I have known more than a hundred tramps who have run away from home, driven by this method. They were out of work, and they could not get help because they were able-bodied. I will give you one instance. I investigated the case, and found it to be genuine. The man was out of work, and the people said practically, If you will get out of the way, the relief people will take care of your family; but, as long as you are round, they will not do it. For two years and a half that man tramped the country, ever seeking honestly for steady work where he could earn enough to bring his family together.

Another case of a woman with some children. The husband was in the penitentiary, put there for stealing wood, as he claims, to keep his family from suffering. A girl of twelve was going to school. The investigator of the case insisted that she should stop going to school, and should go to the factory and help contribute to the support of the family. The family did not like to take her out of school, and she ought not to have been taken from school. We do not take our children out of school at ten or twelve, and force them to work in factories. We become so officious, so accustomed to meeting these people, that we think we always have a remedy. I know three cases where women have been asked to give up their children, that they may go into institutions, rather than help them in their homes. Why are you boasting so much about reducing the amount you give? I could not glory so much when I see the suffering and struggling and desperation. Here is a man out of work. You say, Here is a job for you; and you offer him a price for his work that will cut the throat of every poor man in the community. I have had people telephone me to send them men to cut maple wood at fifty cents a cord, taking advantage of their poverty. In some of our cities, men are asked to work for fifty cents a day; and even charitable societies wish to reduce the price of wages.

Mrs. E. E. Williamson, New Jersey.— I live in a city governed by a county system. Private societies are doing the work of giving relief, not so much by giving as by establishing industrial homes. In Newark the most humane industrial society is a magnificent laundry that has depots all over the city, and that gives relief through work and wages. With reference to Jersey City, the poormaster there has been in the habit of using the almshouse to cut down his appropriation. He has been sending whole families to the almshouse. A characteristic incident happened there. The warden conceived the idea of making the paupers work. They had about six hundred. He determined to have the entire place whitewashed; but the men struck, and walked out of it, all of them. I personally have in charge, or am at the head of, the Charity Organization Society of Elizabeth, a city of over fifty-three thousand. The poormaster co-operates with us absolutely, and he has reduced his

outdoor relief from $7,000 to $2,000. He never gives any relief without investigation by the Charity Organization Society. I believe I know the poor of Elizabeth, every one of them; and I know they have benefited by the reduction of outdoor relief. There is no question but they have become self-respecting citizens. I know it. In Trenton there has been the same reduction. They give now only $3,000, and they have a population of 65,000. In Camden they have done the same thing, and it has stimulated the working-men to earn their own homes and to better their condition materially. In Paterson it is very much the same. Therefore, I believe that a proper reduction, under the charge of the Charity Organization Society, which will look thoroughly into all the cases, is beneficial to every community. I think that before long in New Jersey we shall have nothing except sick-relief.

Mr. WILSON.— None of us advocate this for the sake of saving money, but to save human character. Charity organization workers do not advocate the breaking up of homes, but the development of resources to make these homes conducive to the welfare of the family. In New York the Charity Organization Society has made arrangements for several hundred children by which they are kept at home without public outdoor relief.

Mr. Glenn called attention to the third season of the Summer School of Philanthropy, which was to begin in New York June 18, and continue six weeks.

Adjourned at 10.15 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Sunday morning, May 20.

Rev. F. H. Wines, D.D., preached the Conference Sermon, from the subject "The Healing Touch" (page 10).

FIFTH SESSION.

Sunday night, May 20.

The evening session was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President, who introduced Dr. Plutarco Ornelas, Mexican consul at San Antonio, Tex., who had been appointed by President Diaz to represent Mexico at the Conference. Dr. Ornelas read an account of the charities of Mexico, an abstract of which will be found on page 379.

Señor M. R. Suarez then read a report of the "Relief Work done in Cuba" (page 374).

An address on "Conditional Liberation" was given by the Governor of Kansas, Hon. W. E. Stanley, as follows: —

Conditional Liberation.

Something over a year and a half ago I was called to the position of the chief executive of the State, and for the first time I took up the study of certain questions which I knew would confront me in the discharge of the duties of the office.

Among others, I studied the question of prison management. In my message I suggested to the legislature that a law looking to the promotion of prisoners, the establishment of different grades, and a system of parole as a reward for good conduct would be productive of good, and asked that some law be passed along this line; but the legislature failed to act on these suggestions.

The action of the Board of Pardons, which had existed in Kansas for years, had become a subject of reproach; and I requested that the law creating this board be repealed. The legislature also neglected to act on this suggestion except by the failure to make an appropriation to pay the per diem and expenses of the board. I declined to appoint a new board, and took the whole matter in my own hands.

One day a woman came into my office, and told me the story of her husband's conviction and imprisonment. She said she had seven little children dependent on her for support, and had kept them together for something over a year, the time that her husband had been in prison. She pleaded with me for his pardon, saying the family were dependent upon him to keep them out of the almshouse, and that he had been a good provider. I told her I thought I could do nothing for her, and she went out of my office crying with disappointment. The face of that woman stayed with me, and kept suggesting that there ought to be some way to help in such cases. As the legislature had not helped me, I determined to see what I could do myself. I examined the statutes, and found a section that provided that the governor might grant a pardon upon such terms and conditions as he might incorporate in the pardon. I examined the authorities on the question: they were divided. The constitution provides that no man can be deprived of his liberty without due process of law. It occurred to me that, if I restored a prisoner to even conditional liberty, I could not get him back into prison without legal proceedings; but, upon a full examination of the authorities, I concluded that a person released conditionally was not in possession of his liberty within the meaning of the constitution. I announced that I would take up and inaugurate the system of conditional pardons. One of the first persons to come in was this poor woman. The conditions of the pardon which I had decided to grant were that the person should not frequent places where intoxicating liquors were sold or gambling was practised,

that he should refrain from these vices, should not violate any of the laws of the State, that he should make all reasonable efforts to obtain employment and support those who were dependent on him, that he should report to the warden on the first day of each month his whereabouts and the business in which he was engaged, and that, if he violated any of these conditions, he should be returned to prison. The prisoner was required to consent to these conditions before being released.

It was an experiment, and it was a little questionable whether the courts would sustain me; but I inaugurated it, and up to this time I have conditionally pardoned thirty men from the penitentiary, not one of whom has at this time violated a single condition in the pardon which was given to him. I have taken occasion to ask the warden to send to me every month the reports from these men, so that I might write to each one a personal letter, and, if possible, strengthen their arms and help them in this new way. I have conceived that there ought to be something in the office of governor that might be a help to some of our unfortunate people who needed help. So far, not a single person has violated the terms or conditions of his pardon.

I have in my office the reports for the month of April, and I do not know that I can do better than read some of these reports from these men: —

In compliance with your instructions, sir, I will inform you of my conduct, which is good at this time. Sir, I do hope it will continue so. I was released on the 13th of April, and I was sick when I came out; but I am getting better. I started work on the 17th of April. I will continue so long as my work is satisfactory.

I will let you know that I am at work and doing well at the barber trade. It is the best shop in town. I will send you the picture of the shop. Tell Mr. Call and the Doctor that I am all O. K.

It affords me the greatest of pleasure to write to you, and let you know I arrived home all right; and I have been doing pretty well. My mother was sure glad to see me; and I was glad to get home, too. I have had work all the time I've been home, but I have not worked every day. I worked all but a week, and that week I had a lot of business to attend to. I have made $15.85. I was working in the barber shop then; but business was too dull, so I got a job with a painter and paper-hanger. That's what I am working at now. I have not been sick a day since I got home. I sure was glad to get out of there. Well, Warden, I can't think of anything else I ought to write.

I am getting along all right, and am at work, trying to do the best that I can. I am planting corn now. I got your letter, and one from the Governor, and am glad to know that you and him are among my dearest friends; for I feel that only for my friends I would not be at home to-day.

I am still farming, and have worked every day that the weather would permit. My letter may be late sometimes; but it is on account of only having mail twice a week at our post-office, as we are twelve miles from railroad. I am farming for my mother, and have not worked out any. Have just finished planting my corn, — 90 acres.

I am still working at the brick plant, and doing pretty well. I am getting $2.25 per day.

Sir, I am getting along all right, and doing well. I have bought three nice hogs this month, and have worked every day but two. Hope you are getting along nicely with your work. All for this time.

I am getting along with my farming all right. I will get done planting corn in two more days. I was glad to receive your kind letter that came to hand some time ago. I write a little early, as I am very busy and live some distance from post-office.

I am with the firm of . . . , and am getting along nicely, and on good behavior. I make about thirty dollars a month. Not a very big salary for the work I do. I work from 5.30 in the morning until 7.30 at night, so you see I don't have much time to run around.

I am still in Benedict. I am in the barber business yet. I am getting along just fine. I have been doing some painting here in the past thirty days.

I am getting along nicely. Warden, if life lasts, I will try and come up to see you all in a couple of weeks. Well, I guess this will be our last letter; and I hope and trust that this will never happen again as long as I live. Well, good-bye.

I done work in the mines to the amount of $29.60, and at times the mines did not work. Done house painting which amounted to $22.00. Total made for the month of April, $51.60. I have every day work in the mines now, and am making good wages. Warden, you may be assured that I feel very grateful to the Governor.

I am still working for . . . and lots of gardening at home, so I have just all I can do.

I have been very busy for the past month. My cultivator and lister trade is good. I have sold twenty-one harvesting machines and three mowers. I also sold last Tuesday a 16-horse Advance Traction Engine for $1,600.00, and on last Saturday an Advance Steam Threshing outfit for $2,000. I think I am getting along all right, living according to contract.

I am at Anthony, doing Salvation Army work.

I have in about 100 acres of corn, and have just started to work it. I have a good stand. I want to raise a big crop, and will try very hard.

It is my duty to inform you of my whereabouts. I am in . . . . working at farm work, getting along well, and hope these few lines will be satisfactory. I still have my friends to help me get work. The colored folks had their opening at their new church to-day. We are having a good time.

Standing in my place as the Governor of Kansas, I would rather help twenty fellows to start in the right way and put round them the encouraging influences of the state, that they may lead honest lives, than be the best politician in the state.

Well, is it a success? you ask. A limited success; a partial success. If I knew that I could release from the prison a hundred other men; if I knew that they would observe the laws of the state, and

fulfill their obligations to their neighbors and families; if I knew that on release the lesson they had learned would be sufficient, that they could find employment and turn their steps toward a better life and better manhood,— I would release them to-morrow. But that is the trouble. I cannot release them all. This is only a partial success.

But let me say to you, I believe we ought to go back of the prison. We must prevent crime, not cure it. I believe the people in Kansas have as warm hearts, as strong sympathies, as can be found in any state in the Union; but the confirmed criminal cannot be cured by any such process, in my judgment. There is no human heart of love and sympathy that can efface the blight that a life of crime has caused. No hand can brush away the stain but the hand of the Divine Helper. You must go deeper than these prison methods. On the one side are the home, the Sunday-school, the church, striving to build up a splendid type of manhood and womanhood. On the other side are the brothel, the saloon, the gambling-house, the education of the street, trying to pull manhood and womanhood down to the lowest depths. You must first rid society of those evils, and this must be a matter of business. I have not much use for professional reformers. The person who is throwing the greatest obstacles in the way is the agitator and reformer who does not study the question sufficiently to get at the bottom of the trouble. Before some of you younger men die, the state will require some other condition than it now requires as to the marriage relation, because, if you breed little criminals now, you are going to make big ones by and by. As one of our bright men has said, you must begin with the grandfather. The old adage, that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure, is good to apply to matters like this. And that is what your association should do.

How many centuries have we been making criminals? And this thing that we call sin, how many centuries has it been blighting and dwarfing manhood and womanhood? You cannot cure it in a year. Eighteen hundred years ago the greatest of all teachers, on the plains of Judea, taught this doctrine of mercy, sympathy, and love, when he illustrated it by the parable of the good Samaritan, teaching that all men are neighbors, and that we should love our neighbors as ourselves, and put on foot that splendid movement that has resulted in organizations like this, that will educate the world along these lines when that gospel has its full run.

Take the criminal. Here is a straight line of moral conduct, and here is another almost parallel, the difference scarcely discernible; and yet after a while the one turns from the other and plunges down. You can catch the boy here as he is getting away from that straight line, but you cannot save him far down below. Human nature cannot do it.

In our state we have a reform school for little boys who have no

homes and for boys who would be better off if they had no homes. They are picked up on the street or out of places called home, worse than the streets. What are they? There are a hundred of them now, and there were a hundred and fifty of them awhile ago. Such boys form a kindergarten for the Reformatory at Hutchinson, and the Reformatory is an academy for the penitentiary. Do you people believe that you can put a bad boy between two other bad boys, and make him good? Is that your idea? If that is so, please explain how it can be done. In the great economy of human society, I only know of one really helpful and sacred place; and that is the home,— the home where all life's discords are swallowed up by the music of the patter of little feet and the prattle of little tongues. There is nothing like it,— the place of sweet confidence, of pure joys, of unclouded skies, the place where every-day affection builds an altar, and on it offers up the sweetest sacrifice that love can offer love. What we want is more good influence in the land, more family altars, more Christian homes, where the boys and girls in early childhood will catch an inspiration that will lead them in the paths of strong manhood and womanhood in after years. And just as you can duplicate such homes, you are solving these questions of crime.

Yes, we want to prevent crime, not cure it.

If I could take the boys out of the Reform School, and put on foot such a plan as I have in mind, I would do it. I would put them into good homes where good men and women would train them. But it is easier to keep them out of reform schools than to let them out. But we have put thirty into homes, and they are pretty good boys. And they write back that they like their new homes, and say they are doing well. I would that in Kansas and everywhere we had that touch of love and sympathy which would induce these good homes to reach out and take these worse than homeless boys, and train them to become good citizens. Whenever we do that; whenever the churches, the day-school, the Sunday-school, and similar agencies can induce the people to do this and try to make good citizens of such boys,— we shall have gone a long way toward solving this question.

We read in the good book that there is a time coming when there shall be universal peace, when it shall stretch its wings o'er all the world; when there shall be no more war, but swords shall be beaten into ploughshares and spears into pruning-hooks. It seems to me, when we look at the glorious results of the century closing, that we may not have to look far down into the next century to see the first dawning of that coming day. The rallying cry of the future must be the rights of the individual, and the strongest incentive to duty must be the desire to do humanity service. The song of the coming century must be the song of long ago,— peace on earth, good will toward men.

We grow impatient, we see so much crime, poverty, wretchedness, so many things evil; and yet I believe the world is better to-day than

ever before. It occupies a higher plane. We know that the good time is coming; and we say to the future, "Flow on, O stream of time, and bear upon the swift current of future years the realization of all our earnest hopes and the answers to all our fervent prayers."

The Committee on Care of Destitute and Neglected Children reported through the chairman, Mr. Galen A. Merrill, of Minnesota in a paper called "Some Recent Developments in Child-saving" (page 226).

A talk on the Homes of the Children of Chicago, illustrated by stereopticon views, was given by Mr. C. F. Weller, superintendent of the West Side District, Chicago Bureau of Charities.

Adjourned at 11 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Monday morning, May 21.

The Conference was called to order at 9 A.M. by the President.

The report of the Committee on Time and Place was made by the chairman, Mr. F. H. Nibecker, as follows:—

The Committee on Time and Place recommends that the next meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction be held in Washington, D.C., in May, 1901.

On motion the report was adopted.

Mr. NIBECKER.— The committee moves further that it be held in the latter half of May, the exact date to be fixed by the Executive Committee in conjunction with the Local Committee.

Voted.

Mr. NIBECKER.— The Committee on Time and Place offers the following resolution:—

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction extends its thanks to the cities of Seattle (Wash.), Columbus (Ohio), Milwaukee (Wis.), Cleveland (Ohio), Memphis (Tenn.), and Richmond (Va). for their kind and cordial invitations to the Conference to meet with them in 1901.

Resolved, That the representatives from those cities be requested to transmit this action of the Conference to any bodies which may have taken formal action on the subject.

Voted.

Mr. A. O. Crozier moved that the sessions as arranged by the Programme Committee should not be interfered with during the ses-

sions. The President said that no such vote need be taken, as the programme would be carried out as nearly as possible. Up to that time the only change made had been on account of sickness.

The report of the Committee on Politics in Charitable and Correctional Affairs was made by the secretary of the committee, Professor F. W. Blackmar, of the University of Kansas (page 27).

A paper on "The Essential Iniquity of the Spoils System" was read by Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of Philadelphia (page 34).

DISCUSSION ON POLITICS AND CHARITIES.

The discussion was conducted by Professor Blackmar, who invited the President, Mr. C. E. Faulkner, to open it.

Mr. FAULKNER.— With reference to "the Klondike," to which Mr. Garrett has referred, it is proper to say that Governor Stanley and the attorney-general have used their influence to stop those dens and dives. The 640 acres mentioned is a military reservation under the control of the Congress of the United States; and, whatever scandal may attach to the canteen system, it is no reflection on Kansas, for Kansas has no jurisdiction there. There have been efforts to suppress the disreputable saloons of the Klondike, and these have been in a degree successful.

The board having charge is not a board of charities in any sense. The state board of charities is a purely advisory board. The state of Kansas never has had a state board of charities; but in 1876 she abolished her local trustees, and consolidated the power into one board known as the Board of Trustees of State Charitable Institutions, a board possessing only the original powers possessed by the local boards of management, and with no power of supervision of collateral institutions or of jails or almshouses,— nothing but the business management originally held by the boards which they superseded.

I am delighted to come back here where for nine years I was secretary of that board and nine years in the management of one of those institutions, to see the development of interest on the part of his Excellency the Governor and the people of the state, and the certain promise of effort to correct the abuses which have existed for many years. It was my privilege to take issue with many governors on the spoils system. The governor who appointed me had occasion to pay political debts with appointments, but he usually granted to the board some discretion as to judging of the fitness of the people; but there was not a member of that board who did not pass through the experience of feeling the pressure of the governor to pay that debt, no matter who the governor or who was in power. It is a vicious system. It should be put within the requirements of law that the power

of partisan politics should be eliminated here. I think the people of Kansas are ready for this, and it must rest within the discretion and intelligence of those who for the time are in charge of responsibility. Were I a member of that board of trustees to-day, and a vacancy were to occur in any institution,— a baker, a cook, no matter what it was,— and there were a suggestion of political interference, I should take a square stand against it, the governor or any one else to the contrary. I should say, "Hands off!" I hope that the gentlemen who compose that board who are in sympathy with this work, and have so expressed themselves and who are coming into the State Conference of Charities and Correction to put these principles into effect, by virtue of the discretion confided to them will take their stand now, with the promise that the governor has given to back them up, that there shall be an end put for all time to partisan control in institutions of this kind.

Mr. Timothy Nicholson, Richmond, Ind.— Thirty-four years ago a number of citizens of Indiana, seeing the abuses in our state institutions and especially in our insane asylums through partisan politics, made strenuous efforts to bring about a change. They held public meetings, lobbied in the legislature,— in the proper sense,— waited upon the governor, and did other things to change the management of these institutions. But it was utterly in vain, because of this political management. In 1888 a Republican governor was elected with a Democratic legislature, and that legislature was determined to run things; and they absolutely passed an act taking the appointing of trustees out of the hands of the governor. And that legislature appointed a board of state charities. That board, being non-partisan, set to work with the determination never to let up till politics were banished from the institutions of the state. We began with the hospitals. We got a law that boards in future should be non-partisan, should consist of members of both parties. We went on to other institutions. Presently we made another step, and we got everything out but the prisons. We went a step farther, and got a law that no head of an institution should be removed except for cause, and that should not be politics. That was civil service. Then we got the reformatory all right, and now in Indiana every state institution is out of politics except the prison. We have a reformatory and a prison. While the members of the board controlling the prison all belong to one party, they have become convinced that politics will not do in that institution. They went into it with a view of carrying it by politics, to turn out Democrats and put in Republicans. They see it will not do, and every member has come over to the side of the state board. They have appointed a warden, and said to him: You must not appoint any one for politics. You may remove whom you please, but not on account of politics. There must be no more politics in this institution.

Judge Garver.— As a citizen of Kansas, I ought to allay Mr.

Garrett's apprehension lest what he said was too severe for our Western atmosphere. Whether it comes to sending corn to India or the spoils of politicians, Kansas will not take a back seat. During the last decade we have had a varied experience in Kansas, and we have had periods of political convalescence and of relapse. The evils of this system, I apprehend, have been appreciated by no one to a greater extent than by our governor. I think that every governor within the last ten years who has been instrumental in turning out those in charge of institutions has appreciated that he has done a great wrong to the state, but the political influence has been so great that it has been impossible to stand up against it. We have had the same experience in national affairs. Mr. Cleveland extended civil service rules, and most people thought it was an extension in the right direction; but a great cry went up. If we could have a political interregnum, so that neither Democrats nor Republicans nor Populists would have to be taken care of, we should not have so much difficulty in carrying out the reform. If we could have a strong organization, made up of non-partisan men who would stand behind the governor and hold up his hands in resisting this political pressure, a great thing would be accomplished. We are very proud of our State Board of Agriculture. It has done more for Kansas than anything we have done, and it is non-partisan. It looks after the agricultural institutions in a non-partisan spirit. If this organization which is to be made here could be kept on a non-partisan basis, established only to stand behind the governor and uphold him in conserving the interests of state institutions, a great step forward would be taken. There is no difficulty in agreeing what ought to be done, but how to accomplish it. The remedies suggested by Professor Blackmar are excellent. We enjoyed the paper very much. But how shall we accomplish those things? I believe, however, that at no distant day the reform will be brought about, and Kansas will be able to take the stand that Indiana has taken, and her institutions will be managed by men fitted for the work.

General BRINKERHOFF.— I heartily agree with the system proposed. Partisan politics in such institutions is a crime against humanity. Instead of abolishing a state board of charities, I should create one. I had the honor of drafting the bill for the board in Ohio. I have been on that board twenty-two years, and we never have the least shimmer of politics. We have three members from each of the two large political parties. The governor is *ex-officio* chairman, and every time we get a new governor it will not be ninety days before he is in hearty sympathy with the board. The board has no executive power. It can simply inspect and recommend. Politics have been eliminated from all state institutions except the prison. It is said that, when there is a change of administration, every one goes out of the prison except the prisoners. But we are educating our people, and are going to reach the penitentiary after a while.

We have in all our counties boards of visitors, of six members, of whom three are women, and not more than three belong to the same party. As a rule, nine out of ten of these eighty-eight boards of county visitors are composed of the best people in the county. These are appointed by the governor. We have a large State Conference of Charities and Correction, which equals in attendance the numbers of this Conference. We are going to eliminate this iniquity of partisan politics in the control of state institutions. If we try to do the thing that is right in Ohio, we can do it. We believe that every great institution should be governed by a special board of trustees. Do not pay them a nickel. A man who is not willing to serve except for the love of God and humanity is not fit to serve on such a board. Get the best men to serve on them. When you begin to pay salaries, you go off into politics.

Judge KINNE, Iowa.— While it is true that the Institution for the Feeble-minded at Columbus, Ohio, and some of the hospitals have been measurably removed from politics, I must take issue with General Brinkerhoff. In Iowa we have a paid board, a board that has charge of every state institution. We endowed that board with plenary powers. It was said that a paid board would go into politics. It is nonsense. We have been in operation two years, and I am the only Democrat on the board. The character of the men is such that it would be impossible to have any politics allowed. We have examined all the laws of the different states thoroughly, and have given our entire time to this business for two years; and we have the best act in some ways. I do not say that it is better than the law of Wisconsin, but it ought to be the best because it is the latest. We have had the benefit of all that have preceded us. We not only cannot appoint a man, but we cannot even suggest to the superintendent of an institution that we would like to have such a man appointed. We should be removed if we did. The superintendent is the only one appointed by the board. The board has no power to appoint a cook, a surgeon, a physician, a matron,— any officer of an institution. When we visit the institution, if we find an employee under the superintendent not doing well or doing what we conceive to be wrong, we go right to the superintendent, and take it up and discuss it with him. We have not had a particle of friction. All of our superintendents and wardens, thirteen of them, have been re-elected since this board has been established. One superintendent wrote last year, asking whether he should make a donation to the campaign fund. He was told that any officer or any member of the Board of Control making a donation of a dollar or anything else of value for political purposes would be removed from office. We said to this gentleman, "We cannot prevent you giving money for such a purpose; but you can rest assured that, if you do, we will remove you at once."

Some of our institutions in the past have been practically freed from politics, especially our great hospitals; but the penitentiaries have been

nests of the worst sort of politics, many men holding positions in them who were incapable from every point of view. I thank you.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Monday night, May 21.

The Conference was called to order at 8.30 P.M., the lateness being due to the excursion to the Haskell Institute in the afternoon.

The Auditing Committee was appointed,— F. M. Stewart, M. B. Bushnell, and Timothy Nicholson.

The subject for the evening was the report of the Committee on Reformatories and Industrial Schools, Superintendent L. D. Drake, of Boonville, Mo., chairman. Mr. Drake omitted the reading of his paper, and called on Mr. T. J. Charlton, superintendent of the Indiana Industrial School. Mr. Charlton read a paper called "Twenty Years of Progress" (page 188).

Discussion followed, Mr. Drake presiding.

DISCUSSION ON REFORMATORIES.

Mr. NIBECKER.— It is, I believe, the fact that the real progress that has been made in the last twenty years has been due to the change of masters in this work. It is because there is another at the helm, because ideas have come to dominate, and not passion, prejudice, and tradition. When passion dominates, it is very much like a sweeping fire, that clears off all before it and leaves the surface bare. When prejudice dominates, it is like a dam across a trickling brook: it lies stagnant, and only when there is some unexpected shower of enthusiasm does it overflow. When tradition dominates, it burrows for us the track in which we must always travel, and from which we can never see the heavens. But, when ideas dominate, it is like the sun warming and stirring everything and giving to them that quality that we call life. We cannot have death under the domination of an idea. It is because our minds have been at work, because we have sought reasons and causes, and have sought to find out what results will be before we have tried our plans, because we have sought to find out what may be done before we have done it, because we have tried to work out our ideas, that we have succeeded. The ideas that dominate schools for delinquents are not recognizable as the ideas that dominated them thirty years ago, perhaps even twenty years ago. What has been the method of working out these reforms? I believe it has been through the idea of the *school*. We do not call reformatories anything but schools now, even though officially they may have

other names. The name given to us in 1826 was "The House of Refuge," but our boys always write at the head of their letters "Industrial School."

These children require some special leading. They are not abnormal in the sense of being monstrosities. They are not bad in the sense of being horrid creatures that need to be held with chains, but they are different in a sense from other children. A large majority of them come from good homes. That is another advancement of the twenty years. This idea has been carried so far that any one may take advantage of the provision made. The institution has been made suitable for the care of any child that cannot be handled by ordinary parental knowledge. Many a family has some one child that they have not the power to manage, and for such families these schools have been so developed that any child may be sent there. And parents have taken advantage of it to such an extent that three-fourths of the children who come into my school are reported as having good homes. This, I think, is the most important development of the twenty years.

Mr. W. C. Ball, Terre Haute, Ind.— I am very far from criticising a man for whom I entertain so profound a respect as I do for the governor of Kansas. The fact that he established here a system of parole for prisoners is a thing to be remembered in years to come. But he did incidentally say that the reform school was a kindergarten for the reformatory, and that the reformatory was a sort of academy for the penitentiary,— that these two lower institutions fitted boys for service in the penitentiary. I differ radically from the governor. That is not true in Indiana nor in any other state that I know of, and I think he must be wrong about thinking it is true here. If it were true, the best thing to do would be to abolish both of those institutions. He spoke about putting a good boy between two bad ones. The trouble is, there are no good boys in the reform school. They are not sent there because they are good. There were bad boys before the reform schools existed, and the schools were established to get rid of the bad boys. It is because they have broken the laws that they are sent to these schools. We teach them to be amenable to law. They are committed until they are twenty-one; but, when they have learned to obey the rules, they are sent out on parole. What is our experience? I have been connected with our board of trustees for eight years, and it is our experience that over 80 per cent. of the boys are taught some useful occupation, and are never heard from in any penitentiary or jail. We had several boys in the army against Spain. They are in different occupations. One boy came into my office, and, I must confess, I was surprised to find that he was travelling with "Uncle Tom's Cabin" company, taking care of the dogs. What we can do in Indiana can be done in Kansas. The reform school at Plainfield is not a kindergarten for the reformatory. It is a training school, where they are taught to live honest lives; and three or four thousand who have passed through it are now doing so.

Mr. FAULKNER.— I am not now a citizen of Kansas, although I was a citizen of the state for twenty-seven years. I was the secretary of the Board of Trustees of the Kansas State Charitable Institutions at the time of the passage of the law which made provision for the establishment of the State Reform School for Boys. I was a member of a committee appointed by the board with the approval of the governor to visit other states in order to obtain information concerning the principles which should obtain in the creation and management of such an institution. Our committee was favored with the advice of the most experienced officials in the country, and, acting upon the suggestions made, decided that the Kansas Reform School should be modelled upon the family idea, using the cottage system, and made free from any of the distinguishing marks of a prison.

I was requested to prepare a draft of a law for presentation to the legislature; and the bill thus drawn became the present law, with a single change. We recommended that a boy be committed by a magistrate upon complaint of a parent or responsible guardian, without the formal court hearing and record, to which so many parents object. The House Judiciary Committee struck out this provision of the bill, thus requiring the formal procedure in committals for incorrigible conduct, which governs in the more serious cases. However, the magistrates may commit without recourse to findings by a jury; and the attacks made upon such committals, upon the plea that they were in contravention of rights of personal liberty guaranteed by the Constitution, have not been sustained by the courts.

Thus the school stands more in the character of an educational than a penal institution, and nothing should be done to disturb the public estimate of its value as a training school. For this reason and with all deference to the opinions of the governor, I hope that Kansas will not place the Boys' Reform School or the Girls' Industrial School under the control of a board of managers which also has charge of the prisons of the state. All places of detention for the restraint and correction of juvenile life in its very first misdoing should be completely separated from the administration of the institutions designed for the treatment of criminals.

QUESTION.— It has been stated here that two-thirds of such children come from good homes. That is astonishing. How is it that Mr. Brockway, superintendent of the Elmira Reformatory, says that 50 per cent. of those that come to his reformatory have been in some such institution as a reform school? *

* As it seemed important to have these facts verified, the editor wrote to Mr. Brockway with reference to them. The following is his reply, which is printed with his consent: —

Dear Mrs. Barrows,— I am not surprised, and yet I am greatly pained, that I should be so constantly misrepresented. I have never made a statement intended to reflect upon the good work done by the juvenile reform schools. I have in private conversation, never publicly, as it is none of my business, said that some unreformed boys previously confined in reform schools, who, committing fresh crimes, come into this reformatory, seem to have deprived themselves, probably by their own misconduct, of effective industrial training, and training also in the habit of regulating their own conduct in accordance with their own true interest and welfare. I have also stated that approximately 50 per cent. of the inmates of the reformatory have, previous to their committal for a felony for which

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT.— When I was secretary of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities, a gentleman made a similar statement,— that a large number of prisoners had been previously in reform schools. This gentleman was a member of the board that governed the state prison. The Board of State Charities asked me to investigate that; and I went to the state prison, which contained 400 inmates, and inquired into the record and history of those prisoners, not by asking them questions, but by asking the officers what they had learned, in addition to what was in the written records. By using these different sources, we found out something about nearly every prisoner; and out of the 400 we could identify but one who had previously been in the Wisconsin Reform School, and he had not been reformed. There might have been two or three others whose history we could not trace. There were a few others who had been members of other institutions. So out of the 400, there were a few over a dozen perhaps, certainly not over 20, who had ever been members of any reform school anywhere. Then I went to the Industrial School for Boys, and I began at that end of the line. They keep not only a full history of the boys before they were committed, but also as far as possible a record of what becomes of them; and out of 2,500 I could discover only a small number, less than a dozen, who had been in any prison. These facts are true of Wisconsin not only, but of reform schools and penitentiaries everywhere. In the city of New York there is a large crime class, and the reformatory is supplied largely from that city. They are the street boys who have grown up to a life of crime. As boys they were very likely sent to Randall's Island, many of them. But, even then, I do not think the proportion is as large as the gentleman stated. If so, it is owing to the social and political conditions of New York.

There is another side. There is something in what the Governor of Kansas said, that there is a large number of boys in the industrial schools who would better be placed in families on the parole system. It is natural for officers of institutions to think that their institution is the best place in the world. But there are many boys who should be placed out. We all know that many boys placed in reform schools are not criminal. The commitment papers by no means prove the crime of the boy or what he is likely to turn out. Many children are sent to industrial schools because they are homeless or because they

they are sent to this reformatory, been in the toils of the law,— under arrest, station-house-let-go, in jail, in juvenile asylum, house of refuge, juvenile prison, training school, workhouse, penitentiary, state prison, or in some home or charitable institution, orphans' home, truant school, protectory, etc. One or more of the experiences of the long list above enumerated, about 50 per cent. of our men, according to their own admission, had had at some time in their life. My citation of the fact has been for the purpose of suggesting that much might be accomplished toward preventing crimes by homeless, dependent youth if in the public school system of the several states more attention could be given to producing a good physical condition, with industrial training, preferably in the industry the youth should follow all his life. I am in deep sympathy with the work of my friends engaged in juveniles, and believe the principles and general régime adopted are wise and well calculated to accomplish good. I am not in a position, nor have I a disposition, to make any criticism on their work, as above stated. I am

Very respectfully and sincerely yours,

Z. R. BROCKWAY,
General Superintendent.

ELMIRA, N.Y., July 25, 1900.

have bad homes. Many are sent on commitment papers when their only offence is that some one wanted to get rid of them or officers wanted to make fees for sending them. A county judge in my state said that in one of the smaller cities more boys and girls were sent to the industrial schools annually than from all the rest of the county put together, including a much larger city, because the city marshal and his assistants wanted to make their fees by sending these children to the institutions.

Mr. JAMES ALLISON, Cincinnati, Ohio.— For fifty years the House of Refuge in Cincinnati has been engaged in straightening out the lives of crooked boys. Between twelve and thirteen thousand inmates have been sheltered in that time. Between twelve and thirteen thousand have been sent to country homes. Of course, the best thing for any boy is a home; but take the majority of boys committed to an institution, if they were sent at once to a home, they would be mischievous there. They must be fitted for the home. Trades are taught in this school. Boys make their own shoes; all the shoes worn by five hundred inmates. They make their own clothing, and the girls are taught domestic work, cooking, sewing, etc. Lawyers, doctors, ministers, and merchants visit our institution on Sunday afternoons, and talk to our boys, who themselves were once inmates of that institution. That is a common occurrence. We keep an open-book record, open to any one of you, of every boy and girl; and it is a fact that 89 per cent. so recorded have done well after leaving the school. They are watched closely by a gentleman employed expressly for that work. He is on the road all the time, visiting homes and their own homes. In the majority of cases we do not permit a boy to be paroled to his own home, unless that home has been materially changed. We find no difficulty in placing our boys in institutions outside. I have plenty of applications for boys to go into printing-offices. That is an excellent trade. There is no difficulty in placing them in shoe-shops. A boy learns how to make a shoe from beginning to end. What I say of our school applies to the majority of reform schools in the country. I was sorry to hear the remark of the governor, but I do not think he meant it to apply at present. I could show him hogsheads of letters from boys on parole, similar to those which he read.

Mr. T. H. BAIN, Topeka.— The political shuffling of an institution from one party to another is the curse of any institution, and this institution has been shuffled about. The governor speaks from the standpoint of a true Kansan. There is no better place for a boy than a home. No institution can give the love that a boy yearns for. Kansas is too young to have those abandoned boys who have "cussedness" bred into them generation after generation. They come from our broad plains, and they are not bad boys. I used to be a teacher; and I know how to love boys and how they want to be loved. Two-thirds of these boys are sent to the reform school because some one wants

to get rid of them. They do not come from good homes. They are homeless boys, and they should not go into institutions. Kansas has not learned that there are three or four times as many homes without children, ready to take them, as there are boys to fill them, if they were properly placed. The legislature has been considering some plan of putting them into homes, and I will venture to say that two-thirds of those boys are ready to go into country homes and begin to plough and do farm work. 50 per cent. of them never saw a saloon, and 75 per cent. are nice, bright boys. They can be taken care of; and the governor said what he meant when he said the institution is a kindergarten for the reformatory, and the reformatory for the penitentiary. Reform schools should be kept as schools, and the brand of the penal institution should be taken from them.

Mr. STONAKER.— There is a tendency to improve reform schools throughout the country. There are many admirable features about them, but the children should not be kept in them too long.

Mr. JACKSON.— Mr. Brockway told me that more than one-half of the inmates of his institution had been in institutions previously, but I think he had chiefly in mind houses of refuge rather than reform schools. He included them all. I have been waiting patiently to hear some man say what state it is that has two-thirds of its reform school boys come from good homes. I am sorry for that state.

Mr. ST. JOHN, Lansing, Mich.— We have 650 in the school, and two-thirds of our boys come from good homes. They might not be called the best homes; but they are called by the boys and by the neighbors good, fair homes. It is true that the inmates of Mr. Brockway's institution were many of them in reform schools, but that does not mean that more than 50 per cent. of the boys of reform schools have been in his institution.

Mr. NIBECKER.— Mr. Brockway's prisoners are between the ages of sixteen and thirty-five,— that is, running through twenty years. In New York 800 boys are discharged every year. Multiply that by 20 and take 50 per cent., and what per cent. will you have?

Mr. DRAKE.— In the last eleven years of our insitution 70 per cent. of the boys have turned out well. In that time 1,500 have turned out honest, upright young men, making their own living in the state. It depends largely on the advantages furnished by the institution as to the per cent. of reformation that can be secured. Teaching these boys trades gives them a chance to become good, honest, industrious, responsible citizens. Otherwise they may learn only to be common laborers. Take a boy and lift him from a low level, and place him on a plane of responsibility by giving him a trade, and you not only make him a good citizen, but a man you will be proud of. That is better than to have him only able to handle a plough or dig a ditch for some other man. In one case he will earn $1.25 a day, in the other $4 a day. Never make a boy believe that all he can do is to carry the hod. Make him believe that he can spread the plaster as well as the

mason, and give him a chance, and see if it does not help your citizenship, and you will no longer think of your reform schools as kindergartens for the penitentiary.

Mr. Fox.— The reformatory system without the probation system is very inadequate for caring for your incorrigible children. Organize a probation system, and you can cut down your reformatory facilities 50 per cent. in a year.

Mr. Edwin Snyder invited the Conference to visit the Reform School of Topeka at 4 P.M.

The remainder of the evening was devoted to stereopticon views of the Reform School at Boonville, Mo., exhibited by Mr. Drake.

Adjourned at 11 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, May 22.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30, A.M. by the President, who introduced Dr. F. M. Powell, chairman of the Committee on the Care of the Feeble-minded and Epileptics. A paper was read by Dr. Powell (page 70).

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. E. E. Williamson.— I am to open the discussion at the request of the chairman, because I am one of the trustees of the Institution for the Feeble-minded in New Jersey, and because I have been instrumental in helping to get the epileptic colony established which we shall soon be able to open. The feeble-minded have not received the care in the United States that they should, but the movement in their behalf has been growing for some years. The educational side is the side that must be reached. Even the custodial cases can be bettered to a great extent through education. We have about one-third custodial cases in our institution; and we give them industrial training, and find it a means of development. One woman over thirty-five has taken kindly to shoemaking, and is doing excellent work in soling shoes.

The care of the backward child, the foot-of-the-class child, must appeal to us all. In my experience with children in New Jersey I have found a great many slow children. There are more of them than we realize. It is difficult to place such children in families. I recall one such child. We placed her in home after home where she would be sent to school. The teachers said she was a nice child, but they could not do anything with her. At last we placed her with a woman who, we thought, would be likely to understand

the child. She did, and gave her home treatment and education. She helped her as one should help a backward child. In the last nine months we have seen the most remarkable change, so that she stands well in the public school at Paterson. This sort of thing can be done in many cases. We should have special schools for such children as part of the public school system. I am glad to see that the section on the Care of the Feeble-minded is taking up this matter. It is hard to convince a normal person that a child is so dull that it needs special training. There are very few such schools in the United States; but, when they are established, they will be of great benefit.

Dr. W. A. Polglase, Lapeer, Mich.— Dr. Powell's paper is very comprehensive, but I will speak only of our own institution. It is practically a new institution, having been in existence but five years. I had the pleasure of organizing and opening it. When I came to the work, I found a variety of ideas existing. There are about three thousand imbeciles and feeble-minded in our state, and about the same number of epileptics; and, in organizing the school, the question came up, what to do. We agreed that the better way would be to accept the feeble-minded portion, though we were looking also to the caring for the epileptics. Our idea was that, later on, the epileptics would be cared for by the state under a separate division. As the applications came in, we found it impossible to ignore the fact that the epileptics must be admitted; and so we had an appropriation for a cottage for them, as our institution is on the cottage plan,— inexpensive, but good, substantial buildings. We found no trouble in filling it, because we had about six hundred applications on file. It was only a question of what class to take. We take only the pauper class; and, in taking the epileptics, we adhered to that rule, and it gives us such a variety of cases that we hardly know what to do with them. There are a few cases of normal persons, and these grade down into the imbecile. The question now is, what to do with the enormous number who have discovered the existence of the institution. We have on file over a thousand applications. We have about eighty-five persons of middle age. We have a building for a hundred male epileptics, and we have numerous applications from epileptic individuals. We have had them come praying to be put in. We are crowded almost beyond our capacity, and the state has a large job on hand. Michigan has a great amount of land belonging to the state which this class of imbeciles could put into productive condition. 25 per cent. of our inmates would be self-supporting if the work were put into their hands to do. We train the low grade as far as they can go. It keeps them in better condition. We have the greatest trouble with the people who feel that these persons should be out in the world because of the expense; but, as I say, if the institution were properly equipped, 25 per cent. would be self-supporting. The colony idea would do more

toward lifting that burden than any other means. Besides, a large class of adult imbeciles come to us whom we refuse. The law says we must take the young. The colony plan would avoid that.

Dr. POWELL.— In regard to the adult imbecile. The original establishments for the feeble-minded were on the school idea. Only the younger were admitted. The most pathetic class are the adults. The most appealing letters that come to me are from parents who are worn out with the care of grown-up imbeciles. There is no stronger reason why we should look after adult imbeciles than the reason that they have reached an age when they are liable to be left alone. We must work on lines to provide custodial care for adults.

Dr. Powell invited Dr. George F. Keene, of Rhode Island, to speak.

Dr. KEENE.— I have had no experience in charge of this class of defectives, although my lot has been cast, and a large proportion of my life has been spent, in the care and treatment of certain classes of defectives. I will not attempt to offer you any suggestions, as Dr. Powell has had a rich experience, and I have learned a great deal from him. It seems to me that this problem has been more perplexing than any that has presented itself to social science. All sorts of solutions have been suggested, from the most idiotic to the most atrocious. It is the height of foolishness to do nothing with this class, to give them no separate care; but it is barbarous to suggest certain forms of treatment, or even extermination. Dr. Henderson, the last President of this Conference, in his annual address said that "we must remember nothing is created in vain, nothing should be thrown upon the rubbish heap as entirely useless"; but that is where the problem comes in. What is the community to do with this class of defective humanity, which, in spite of our boasted civilization, is constantly increasing with each succeeding generation? What is the cause of this involution of humanity? It is useless to say it is an inheritance. It is useless for us to look wise, and say that defective, diseased bodies and defective minds are an heredity. We must determine the genesis of that taint, parental or prenatal, which has extended its blight upon the children of the third and fourth generation. The doctor must be called in time; and he must diagnose the condition, the defect, the disease, if you will, which has visited the whole extent of the race. The evolution of the race points to the hope that we are breeding *out* rather than breeding *in* defects, that these defects which we see are like the sparks of waste material which are thrown off from heated iron while it is being moulded into some useful form. I think we have expended much more energy in the enduring than in the curing of these evils. The colonization or the segregation of these defective classes is a long step in the right direction, but their proper education and their permanent sequestration are just as important as the first step; and they should be made

to contribute just as much as possible to the state for their care, that they may so far lighten the burden of taxes upon the toiling citizen. Whatever is true of the idiotic and the feeble-minded is also true of the epileptic, and their sequestration and colonization is just as necessary; for from the epileptic spring a great many of the feeble-minded. I hope it will not be long before Rhode Island is enrolled among those states which have accomplished the sequestration and colonization of these two classes of defectives.

Mr. J. F. JACKSON, St. Paul.— It has been stated that it is necessary that the feeble-minded should be segregated and should have special schools. Now it is said that the epileptic need the same things, and that we need colonies for both. Is it desirable that the two sorts of institutions should be under one administration and one superintendent, or is it desirable that these two classes, needing similar care, should be under separate administration and in separate institutions?

Dr. POWELL.— The conditions are different. Imbecility is not a disease: it is simply a condition. It is often asked, How many do you cure? We do not cure any. It is a condition, and we try to improve the condition. They are entirely different classes. The idiotic and feeble-minded are usually pleasant and easy to get on with. The epileptic condition is an absolute disease; and, as a rule, epileptics are irritable, especially at times, and sometimes absolutely dangerous. I escaped with my life by an eighth of an inch on one occasion, and we have had numerous encounters with them. They need separate provision. It is too much for any one man to accomplish properly, to look after both classes.

QUESTION.— Do they have separate boards of control?

Dr. POWELL.— Yes, in certain states. Where there is one general board of control for the state, that board would have charge of both, of course.

Mr. JACKSON.— I thank you.

Mr. CARRINGTON.— In regard to the importance of medical inspection in public schools, to what extent are examinations made? Would the examining physician be a permanent officer or merely make a casual examination?

Dr. POWELL.— He is a part of the school board, and his function is to examine all the children for physical and mental defects. A large number of children in public schools labor under imperfect vision or hearing or other bad conditions, and the teacher frequently does not find it out. I had occasion to write an article on this subject, "Backward Children"; and I gave a number of examples to illustrate it. I recall that our county superintendent, in examining the children, found three in one of the public schools who were a great deal of trouble. There was constant conflict, not only between children and teacher, but between the teacher and the parents. The children were examined, and two were found defective in vision and

one in hearing. When the teacher was informed, steps were taken to give them individual treatment.

General BRINKERHOFF.— I studied this subject long ago very carefully. I have no hesitation in saying that these two classes ought to be kept separate. There is nothing in common between them. Many of the epileptics are entirely sane, and they ought not to be associated with the feeble-minded. Ohio was the pioneer state in dealing as a state with the epileptic, the first state in the world that did it. Our board took up the subject in 1868; and, when I came on the board, I became interested in it, and I began to study it and to gather literature on the subject. I wrote to our consul in France, and got French literature; and in various ways I got together much valuable material on the subject of epilepsy. In co-operation with my board we began to educate the state, and finally succeeded in securing an appropriation for an epileptic colony, and in 1891 I had the honor of delivering the address at the laying of the corner-stone. We have 800 in our colony. We did not have as much land as we ought to. New York is wiser. She has 1,800 acres. We have a good pathologist. Many epileptics can support themselves if they have proper opportunity. They cannot do it outside. We have all kinds of employments and schools. Epileptics are the most pitiable class on earth.

With regard to the feeble-minded, by patient working and educating the public sentiment of the state, we got the people to consent two years ago to make an appropriation necessary to buy more land; and we have 1,500 acres near Columbus, and I hope Dr. Doren will live to start the institution on it. He is building the houses with his own force. It is all put under the care of Dr. Doren's institution. I consider that one of the greatest things in Ohio, and I am glad that I have been part and parcel in it.

Mr. JACKSON.— Is it wise to have an institution for the feeble-minded near that for the epileptics, or should it have an entirely different location, some miles from the epileptics?

Hon. J. D. ALEXANDER, Akron, Ohio.— I was the author of the bill in the Senate providing for the adult imbecile in Ohio. I believe, if Dr. Doren is permitted to carry out his plans, that he will care for eight hundred adult imbeciles. We have in the Institution for the Feeble-minded eleven imbeciles that are the children of a person taken into that institution thirty years ago and then allowed to go out to bring back a brood of imbeciles. We must prevent that. All that enter stay for life, except at the instance of the state authorities. We do not expect to let them reproduce themselves. The epileptic colony is at Gallipolis. The two should not be associated. They should have two distinct boards.

Mr. W. W. FOLWELL, Minneapolis.— In Minnesota shall we make one institution for young and adult, or shall we establish an institution with a department for the young and one for the adult, and plan

for two institutions, a school for the young and a place of custody for the adult?

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT.— Theoretically, there should be a division of labor. Each institution should have one class of inmates, and there should be a division between the educational and custodial departments. Theoretically, that is correct. Practically, you cannot always begin so. From the ground of practical policy you have to influence the people and the legislature. It may be necessary for Minnesota, in beginning the new work of providing an institution for epileptics, to begin as other states have done. It is hard to induce a state to start a new state institution. It is much easier to induce a legislature to appropriate a comparatively small sum to put up a separate building near by for epileptics, which may afterward be used for a school for the feeble-minded when that institution needs enlargement. There will be no waste of money, and a colony for epileptics may be begun ten or twenty years sooner than it otherwise would be by beginning it as a department of the school for the feeble-minded.

Mr. JACKSON.— There are a hundred there now.

Mr. WRIGHT.— Segregate those in a separate building and a separate department under a sub-superintendent at some distance away.

Mr. FAULKNER.— Having a hundred already and with nine hundred or a thousand outside, what sort of relief can be afforded by a single building in Faribault?

Mr. WRIGHT.— There would be provision for a hundred, anyway.

QUESTION.— Would it not be more difficult to separate them afterward than if they were kept separate from the start?

Mr. WRIGHT.— I think not. As a rule, you have to begin these new classes of institutions by showing the need of them and by getting something started. Eventually there is no question but the two should be separated entirely for physical reasons, in addition to what has been said. The occupation that must be provided is largely farm work, and you cannot profitably carry on farm work with large numbers on moderate-sized farms. You must have comparatively small numbers and scatter them, unless you have market-gardening. A colony of the feeble-minded would better be placed elsewhere than in Faribault, on a much larger farm, with cottages placed a mile or two away from the main building for convenience of labor. The same thing is true of epileptics. For both of these classes the only argument that is convincing to practical persons, who will not be convinced by sentiment or philanthropical considerations, is the ground of public policy, the protection of the state, in order to cut off the entail of heredity. That is the only argument that has been used with effect. You prevent the production of defective classes by segregating them in institutions and keeping them under custodial care. There is also the lessening of danger, for many of them are dangerous about the time of the seizure.

QUESTION.— Would you keep old and young epileptics together?

Mr. WRIGHT.— It is more economical to keep them together.

Mr. JACKSON.— We not only have a hundred epileptics in the school for the feeble-minded, but we have a hundred and fifty in the insane asylums. Would you take them from the asylums and hospitals, and put them in the school for the feeble-minded?

Mr. WRIGHT.— No. You cannot get an appropriation to do that. Your school for the feeble-minded also is crowded. It is possible that you might get an asylum for the epileptics instead of another insane hospital.

Mr. JACKSON.— I should not insist on asking so many questions but for two reasons. I should like to follow one thing to a conclusion, and Minnesota's position is not unique. There is a misapprehension about the nine hundred epileptics in Minnesota. That includes the hundred in the School for the Feeble-minded, one hundred and fifty in the insane hospitals, and nearly seven hundred in the homes, most of whom would not be in the institution if we had one. The practical suggestions of the statesmanlike secretary of the Board of Charities, Mr. Hart, have been followed out in Minnesota. We have a cottage for girls, a cottage for male epileptics, entirely distinct now; and it seems to me we are pretty nearly ready to swarm, if it is desirable to have separate institutions.

Mr. FAULKNER.— As a recent citizen of Minnesota, I would like to say that a committee was appointed to study this question, composed of Bishop Gilbert, Mr. Douglass, Professor Folwell, and myself. We were instructed to prepare a report and consult the Board of Charities, with a view to present this subject to the legislature. Bishop Gilbert's death and other things have prevented the committee from accomplishing much, but I hope that something may yet be done. I am sure that the testimony of superintendents of feeble-minded institutions would be in favor of separate care of epileptics. The same would be true of superintendents of insane hospitals.

Mr. FOX.— New Jersey has an institution for feeble-minded girls and a private one for boys, with a state subsidy. The authorities inform us that there are three thousand epileptics in New Jersey and no state care. They have at last succeeded in getting a state appropriation and a state commission appointed to establish an epileptic colony. They have bought sufficient land, but with the small appropriation for buildings they will only be able to put up a few cottages; and it will be some years before they can take care of more than a few hundred.

QUESTION.— How much land have you?

Mrs. WILLIAMSON.— 1,200 acres.

Mr. WRIGHT.— That is about quarter enough.

Mr. FOX.— We have found that there were a great many feeble-minded or defective children in the schools that had never been classified as such in the almshouses. There was no adequate or competent medical examination of the children and adults at the time they

were committed to these institutions. Even where the authorities knew that these defectives were there, very little demand was made for state care, because the constant answer came back, nineteen times out of twenty, after the blanks were filled up, that the institution was full, or something of that kind. We are making an effort to bring all these things to the attention of the public, even though our efforts are fruitless, so that by continually hammering we may be able to show the need of state care for these defectives. Mr. Alex. Johnson says that in his institution 50 per cent. of his inmates are self-supporting. If we are able to make the adult idiot self-supporting, why should we feed the tramp and be spending so much money on outdoor relief and for the care of adult and perfectly able-bodied persons?

A DELEGATE.— I represent a class of defectives that have not been mentioned, the deaf and dumb. Where you find those that are feeble-minded or epileptic among the deaf and dumb, what do you do with them? What can be done with them? What ought to be done with them?

Dr. POWELL.— We refer them to their respective places in the different institutions of the state.

Mr. J. R. ALLEN, Missouri.— Missouri has been troubled with the same question as Minnesota, and that is the separation of its epileptic and feeble-minded population. We have had no school and no institution in our state for either until our last legislature appropriated a sum of money for their care. We do not separate them. Our feeble-minded and epileptic are at present in the state insane asylums. I am connected with one of them. There are probably five or six hundred epileptic and feeble-minded in this institution now; and, when the question came up as to what sort of an institution we should have, or whether we should have two, the question was settled by providing for one institution. Whether we did the right thing or not, I do not know. It may be that later we shall find it advisable to separate it into two institutions.

Professor FETTER, California.— The general consensus of opinion seems to be that in favor of separate treatment of these two classes, the feeble-minded and epileptic. Ohio may justly be proud of her position in this matter. I speak as a layman, and not as supporting a policy. I am an observer in California, where we have separate institutions under one management. Whether that be right or not, California has accepted that policy. It will be interesting to see the experiment worked out. Circumstances there are favorable for it. Dr. Osborne holds a high position among the specialists in that line. The location is ideal. The state holds 2,300 acres now, with the strong probability that it will be an increase in the future. The law is more liberal than one citizen in ten thousand realizes. According to the law of California, provision is made for this entire class. There is no discrimination. It only remains to provide the funds. With this ideal location among the mountains, with an inexhaustible water

supply, that will furnish power as well as water without expense, with beautiful rolling land, California is trying the experiment. There is a separate building for the epileptics. It will be possible to increase and classify, and yet have the different classes three miles distant from each other. Certain classes are more favorable for self-support than others. There is a brick-kiln upon the place, and clay; and the able-bodied are trained to make brick. With a small appropriation from year to year the buildings can be erected. This business side appeals to the legislature. In this way California proposes to solve this problem. Other states are trying in other ways. In the course of ten or fifteen years all the epileptic and feeble-minded of California ought to be provided for.

Dr. POWELL.— It was my pleasant privilege to spend several days with Dr. Osborne, and the picture of the location is not overdrawn. He proposes to keep both epileptics and feeble-minded in this one large colony, but they are subdivided into small colonies under one general management. With reference to new institutions, Mr. Wright has covered the ground. It is advisable in the development of new institutions to begin by accepting both classes. As numbers increase, the question comes up, How many can one superintendent care for? It is largely a question of capacity.

Dr. POLGLASE.— One point has been lost sight of. About 40 per cent. of the epileptics are imbecile or idiotic.

Mr. EPHRAIM BANNING.— Our State Board of Charities expected Miss Lathrop to be here, and she desired me to explain her absence and to express her regrets. She has taken a deep interest in this subject. The bill passed by our last legislature provides for the preliminary action on the part of the State Board of Charities, that we shall select a location for the establishment of an epileptic colony, obtain options on the land and have plans made with reference to the building, and thus get the matter started with a view to further legislation on the subject when our legislature meets again. We need the help this Conference can give us. Our State Board is wide-awake to this subject, and earnest in its desire to have the best thing possible done. Unless we meet with failure in the legislature, we shall soon have an epileptic colony in Illinois on the general plan, probably, of the Craig colony.

Mr. BUTLER.— In Indiana we have four hospitals for the insane, in addition to one for the feeble-minded; and in each of these there are epileptics. We have now reached a stage when we feel that we can take a step further. The last State Conference of Charities and Correction appointed a committee of three to consider the advisability of action, to report at the next meeting. It will probably be in the direction of some separate institution for epileptics.

Dr. Powell thanked all those who had shown their interest in this subject by taking part in the discussion.

Adjourned at 12.30.

NINTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, May 22.

The session was called to order by the President at eight o'clock. The subject for the evening was the report of the Committee on Lock-ups, Jails, and Workhouses. The report was read by the chairman, who took charge of the meeting, Mr. C. L. Stonaker, secretary of the State Board of Charities, Colorado (page 44).

A paper on "The Management of Jails" was read by Mr. James F. Jackson, secretary of the State Board of Charities, Minnesota (page 52).

A paper on "Jail Construction and Management" was read by Mr. C. M. Finch, of St. Louis, Mo. (page 57).

The chairman said that three of the delegates had that day visited the jail of Topeka, but he would spare the feelings of the people of that city by saying nothing about what they saw. If they wanted to know about it, they could visit it or talk with the sheriff. Mr. Charles C. McClaughry, warden of state prison at Waupun, Wis., was invited to open the discussion.

DISCUSSION ON JAILS.

Mr. McClaughry.— In connection with the different cities of the United States there are houses of correction, and I may interest you by giving some facts concerning one of them with which I was at one time connected. In the middle of January, 1894, I became deputy superintendent of the Chicago House of Correction, the city prison. It is in the south-west part of the city. It is 950 x 450 feet, and has eight hundred cells. In the year 1893 there were in all 10,109 commitments to the House of Correction. A great many persons were committed many times during the year, just how many we were unable to tell; for the proper statistics were not taken. The year 1894 saw some 9,680 commitments to this prison, and in all the years since then the commitments have ranged from nine to ten thousand. These prisoners are violators of city ordinances. Among them are small boys of nine or ten years old who have thrown stones through windows, or who have worried some policeman till life almost lost its charm for him. Many are small thieves from the slums of the city. I have in mind a little Jewish boy of nine, one of the best pickpockets I ever saw, a pretty boy, dressed in sailor suit, who used to be sent out where crowds of ladies were shopping,— on State Street, for instance. He would go among them, and be regarded by each one who saw him

as a child of some standing socially in the city. He would slip in among them, and take their pocket-books from their hands or their pockets with the agility of a monkey. He was regularly sent out to the House of Correction; but, as soon as he was received, some one would come and buy him off by paying the fine, under the provision of the law which allows a prisoner to pay his fine and be released from prison. The two women pickpockets who kept him so well dressed could well afford to pay his fines, for he was worth $75 to them any day. Two or three arrests a month would make no difference to them. They would pay $75 or $100 for each conviction. He was skilled in the uses of the police court; and he would plead himself, or hire a lawyer, or discharge one if he thought he was not shrewd enough. He was one of about 150 boys who regularly formed part of our population. The population ranged from 900 to 1,300; and, as these were confined in 800 cells, there was usually overcrowding. 400 or 500 were doubled in little cells 4 x 7. This prison received from the courts men of more mature years, who were petty offenders against the laws, and who received sentences from six months up to two and a half years. It was simply a dumping-ground. It was not run except for the purpose of receiving and discharging these people. We had as good discipline as possible, and it was clean; but there was none of the reformatory influence that might have done so much good. For a long time the boys were herded among the men, and the women were very inadequately separated from the men. On a recent visit to Joliet from Michigan City I found among the photos of offenders, then on file, 300 photographs of persons that I had handled in this Chicago House of Correction. In Michigan City, in the two and a half years I was there, I handled more than twenty-five men who had served under me in the Chicago House of Correction. I have under me now fifteen or eighteen men who served under me in the Chicago House of Correction. I was in that prison three years and a half, and you can judge what a clearing house for criminals it was. It was not under expert management. The guards were the cheapest politicians of Chicago, selected by the influence of aldermen, saloon-keepers, or different persons who obtained recognition by the city authorities. The place was made a political dumping-ground for those who could not obtain jobs elsewhere in the city. Among the *personnel* of the officers I discovered that several were thieves. Four or five drunkards would be returned to us with the intimation from the mayor's office that we would better take So-and-so back, and their names would go on the pay-rolls. You can imagine how much good was *not* done under those circumstances, though it is almost beyond imagination. In this mingling of good and bad, of the unfortunate and those whose habits were most disreputable, were men of crime who had been in every prison of the country, *habitués* of crime and debauchery. The population should have been measured by the Bertillon methods and classified.

One class of prisoners should have been separated from another; and the habitual criminal should have had the full effect of his criminal record, and been sent for a long term to a proper prison and kept there.

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT.— I could not find a single point with which I could not agree as to the construction and management of jails, but I want to touch on one point that has not been mentioned. The jails of this country have been vastly improved in the last twenty years in sanitary arrangements, so that a large number are no longer a menace to the health and life of the prisoners. We owe much to these gentlemen who build jails. Jails are much more secure than they used to be. We owe that to the steel construction; but that very construction of the steel cage has made the management of the jail worse in respect to herding prisoners together, and the jails of to-day, on the average. are no better than they ever were, as schools of crime and vice. The indictment to be made against the jail to-day is the same indictment made forty or fifty years ago by E. C. Wines: they are schools of crime and vice. This is due not merely to their construction. Many jails are perfectly constructed. In Ohio, Indiana, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and some other states, owing to the efforts of the State Boards of Charities, the new jails are provided with individual cells, which may be used. In how many jails are they actually used by the sheriffs? In how many do they keep the prisoners separate, and prevent them from being schools of crime? After all, we have got to go deeper than the construction. We have got to go to the management of the jails. So long as they are under the charge of sheriffs, they will remain schools of crime and vice. The only remedy is to take the jails out of the control of the sheriffs, and take away entirely the vicious and corrupting fee system of payment, which makes it the interest of the sheriff to increase rather than to decrease the number of prisoners. They should be put, as a few in Pennsylvania are, in the hands of a board of trustees, non-political, who shall carry on the jail and introduce proper labor and keep the prisoners separate.

Mr. W. H. WHITTAKER, Michigan City, Ind.— I coincide with what Mr. Wright has said. If those points were adhered to, it would lessen the prison population. When a prisoner is arrested and is thrown into jail, he is at the mercy of the court and the prosecuting attorney. Often they are in that jail from three months to a year before they come to trial. Why not compel our courts and prosecuting attorneys to give these men a trial at the very earliest possible moment? If the man is found guilty, and it is necessary to affix a sentence of less than a year in a reformatory or prison, give to him a suspended sentence and a fine, say of $300, to go with that sentence. Let the man go on his behavior. Do not cast him into jail to serve in idleness with vice. Let this hang over his head, sending him to the prison or reformatory only when necessary. That would lessen the population of the jails to a great extent.

Another point is that, when you do get a crook, and he is sentenced for two years or more, you should compel the sheriff to bring him down to the penitentiary, and not keep him in jail from three to six months, with forty cents a day for fees for the sheriff. That would possibly relieve the jails of a great many prisoners now confined in them, and lessen this expense.

Every jail should have a jailer, if it has sufficient population, who is bound to take proper care of it; and he should remain there during good behavior, as long as he cares properly for the jail. The idea of keeping the sexes separate should be adhered to, of course.

The chairman said he observed there were a number of sheriffs present, and he invited them to take part in the discussion.

Sheriff JOHN MCCOLLUM, Chase County, Kansas.— I believe no man should be elected a jailer unless he is intelligent, brave, honest, and humane. Some of the best officers in the United States are in Kansas. They do not like this forty cents a day. They can't make anything on forty cents a day. There is no money in it. A man must be humane, or he can't get the election. A great deal that is said about prisoners is twaddle. Lots of places are too good for the prisoners. As a general thing, prisoners are treated too well.

A VOICE.— That is right,

H. C. DUNCAN, Indiana.— The trouble is with the dead-beats, who go to jail because they would rather board with the sheriff than at home. The main thing is to keep men out of jail.

The chairman called on Mr. C. J. Clark, of Indiana.

Mr. CLARK. — I thank you for the opportunity of coming before this distinguished company. I confess to being a sheriff. I want to say a word in regard to the jails of Indiana. I have been much interested in the papers that have been read. In Indiana we have the prisoners classified and kept separate as much as our cell room will allow. Sometimes our population is overcrowded, and we do not have sufficient cell room. I appointed a good man as jailer when I began, and he was in my employ for a short time. One day Mr. Butler, the secretary of the State Board, came to me, and said in his gentle way: "We want to bring this jail up to a certain standard. We want to make it a model jail." His remarks impressed me with the fact that he was in earnest. I talked with the jailer, and concluded that that kind of a man wouldn't do for jailer. I went out, and got a good man; and I believe Mr. Butler will justify me in saying that the jail is now as clean as any hotel in Topeka. I believe the conditions of the jails throughout this country — and God knows they are bad in a great many places — are about like what ours was. You good people should go to them and see them, and demand that the sheriff shall do

his whole duty, We have the prisoners separate now. The boys are by themselves, and the women are by themselves; and there is no one, not even the sheriff, who has a key to the department where the boys and women are. There is a woman in charge of that department, who is a good Christian woman; and she is doing God's work there. I see the importance of this work more and more, and I want to encourage others to take hold of it.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

TENTH SESSION.

Wednesday morning, May 23.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M. by the President. The report of the Committee on Organization was made by the chairman, Mr. L. C. Storrs, who moved that the recommendations and nominations be adopted by the Conference. The report was unanimously adopted (page ix).

Mr. Sanborn called attention to the importance of having the names and addresses of the officers and members of committees printed correctly.

Dr. Smith moved that the Executive Committee be instructed to consider the propriety of organizing a committee on reports from foreign countries, and, if deemed advisable, to appoint such a committee. The motion was seconded by Mr. Sanborn.

Mr. Sanborn called attention to the fact that reports of committees were not signed by the members of that committee, as a rule, but are prepared by one member of the committee, perhaps.

The President said that he would see that the chairman of each committee was requested to communicate with each member of his committee before making his report.

The motion made by Dr. Smith was then adopted.

The President announced that, owing to the absence of the General Secretary, the reports from states would be omitted, though they would appear as usual in the volume of Proceedings.

The report of the Committee on State Boards and Commissions was made by Mr. Leontine Lincoln, Fall River, Mass. (page 167).

A paper on "The Board of Control of Iowa" was read by Hon. L. G. Kinne, Des Moines, Ia. (page 173).

A paper on "State Boards of Charities" was read by Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D. (page 182).

DISCUSSION ON STATE BOARDS.

President FAULKNER.— The "Kansas Board of Trustees of State Charitable Institutions" is an executive board whose functions are limited to the management of the particular institutions confided to its care. Its creation was the result of dissatisfaction with the management of the local boards in the distribution of patronage and the purchase of supplies from local merchants. In 1876 the legislature, acting upon the recommendation of the governor, abolished the local boards, and organized in their places the single board now in existence.

New institutions were created; and now the board has charge of the business affairs of eight institutions,— two asylums for the insane, schools for the blind, deaf, and feeble-minded, a reform school for boys, an industrial school for girls, and a home for dependent children. The board is unlike the Boards of Control of Wisconsin and Iowa; for it has no stated office open for the transaction of business, does not advise the legislature concerning policies of charities and correction other than those which relate to the institutions managed by it, and its members draw per diem pay and mileage instead of fixed salaries and actual expenses.

There has been no disposition manifested to return to the old order of local boards of trustees, but there is a growing conviction that the time is at hand when the state needs a more comprehensive plan for the advisory and supervisory work which relates to the prevention and relief of misfortune in all its manifestations.

An experience of nine years as the secretary of the Kansas board satisfied me of the wisdom of divorcing the public institutions of a state from the various forms of local community interest inspired by personal seeking after appointments to positions and business thrift.

I am somewhat familiar with the work of the excellent State Board of Corrections and Charities of Minnesota and the admirable character of most of the public institutions of that state. I do not know whether there is a cause for complaint on the score of community favoritism in the matter of selecting employees or purchasing supplies; but, if I were a member of that or any of the other very excellent advisory and supervisory boards, I would advocate measures to prevent the possibility of public dissatisfaction over the distribution of patronage in appointments or business contracts. I do not believe that it is wise to appoint trustees from communities where public institutions are located. It is quite impossible for the local trustee to escape embarrassment from the importunities of friends and neighbors for appointments and favors; and it is the truth that too many very excellent trustees compromise their judgment to satisfy such pressure, to the detriment of the interests they are appointed to guard. Contracts for the purchase of supplies may be regulated by

law, but there are many other matters which must be left to the discretion of managing boards.

Mr. Fox.— Would it not be possible, under proper civil service, to obviate that?

President Faulkner.— The trouble is in the excessive employment of people where the institution is located. Civil service does not do away with that.

Mr. Timothy Nicholson.— In our state we have some institutions where there are local trustees. In the city in which I live we have had two local trustees of the insane asylum. These trustees have not been embarrassed in any way by applicants for positions in the insane asylum, because they were instructed or advised in the very beginning to say to every applicant, "This is a matter with which I have nothing to do: go to the superintendent, and make your application, and give him your references." There is an advantage in having the proper kind of local trustees, when something comes up on which the superintendent wants immediate counsel, and does not want to telegraph about it. The Minnesota law and ours were both based upon the Ohio law, and were drawn up with great care. It was felt in Indiana that we did not want a board of control. It was believed that greater good would be accomplished if we had an advisory board, and up to this time — the eleventh year — we are still of the same opinion. I never heard a better description of the operation of a board than that given by Judge Kinne. It is a wonderful work that they have accomplished, but the board is composed of extraordinary men. There was nothing said in the paper in regard to politics. Must the members all belong to one political party?

Judge Kinne.— No, it is non-partisan. I am the sole Democratic representative.

Mr. Nicholson.— It was not a year after the organization of the Indiana Board before the heads of institutions who had thought that we should be very embarrassing to them found out — and one man confessed it in public, in a large meeting — that the board had proved of the greatest advantage to the institutions. But, if it had been a partisan board, the people would have had no confidence in us. One of the greatest effects has been the moral influence of our board. The marvellously improved condition of our state institutions under non-partisan management has so revolutionized public sentiment that the Republican party, in its recent state convention, strongly advocated this non-partisan method; and I believe the Democratic state convention, to be held soon, will also, with equal emphasis, declare in its favor.*

Mr. Herbert W. Lewis, Washington, D.C.— Thirty-five years ago it began to be said of the charitable institutions of Washington that they were wasteful, extravagant, irresponsible, and that something ought to be done to make certain that the large sums of money ap-

*The Democratic convention did so declare.

propriated by Congress for the support of these institutions were economically expended. This dissatisfaction went on from year to year, and embodied itself in official reports. Various committees of Congress investigated and made reports. The Board of Police Surgeons also reported. A special officer was ordered to investigate these institutions and report; and, finally, in 1890, by way of a proviso in the annual District of Columbia Appropriation Act, the office of superintendent of charities was created. The language of the act creating the office made it very clear that the superintendent was to be responsible for a line of duties similar to those of the secretary of a state board of charities. However, it became apparent, to those who thought about it, that no one man, placed in a position between Congress and thirty-five private institutions which received public money, could ever effect the necessary reforms or put the District of Columbia in a condition like that of some of the fortunate northwestern states. The result has been what might have been predicted. There were only one or two public institutions in the district. Many private charitable institutions were supported, in large part, from the public treasury.

The superintendent was charged with the duty of originating the estimates for appropriations in support of these institutions. To do that thing alone presupposes superhuman qualifications; for, if an angel came down from heaven to distribute those appropriations, he would not give satisfaction. The schedule had been made up arbitrarily, and had been followed in like manner from year to year. One institution having a hundred inmates might get $10,000, and another doing similar work might get $1,800; and so it has continued to this day.

Three years ago it became certain that the office of superintendent of charities would fail of the work for which it was created, that something more authoritative and bringing to bear more of the public sentiment of the district, something which would be depended upon more largely by Congress, must be instituted. A bill was therefore introduced to create a board of charities. That bill has had a very dubious experience. It has been pressed to passage in the House of Representatives, and has received a favorable report from a Senate committee; but the last I knew of it its farther progress was obstructed by the opposition of a Senator from a Western state, who was afraid that it might do something to a private institution in which he is interested. That is one reason why we wanted the Conference to meet in Washington this year. We knew that bill would be upon its final passage at this time; and we hoped that, if we summoned a dozen members of the Conference to talk it over before the committees of Congress, we should have secured valuable help. We intend to hammer away at it, and we hope for the support of the men you send to Congress.

General BRINKERHOFF.— I heartily approve of everything that has been said by Dr. Smith. Our experience has been the same. Our law has been the pattern for several states. We all feel at times

that we would like to be kings, but in the long run it is better to trust to a democracy. It goes slowly, but in the end it is sure. In Ohio every institution is under the control of an independent board of trustees, and I believe that is better than a central board of control. It has worked admirably in our state. In regard to the duties of the State Board, for many years we have made it a rule never to recommend anything to the legislature unless we were absolutely unanimous. If we cannot convince each other of the utility of our recommendations, we do not try to convince the legislature. So, when any recommendation comes from us, it is absolutely a unit. Three of our members are Republicans, and three Democrats. Our board was abolished for four years at one time many years ago; but it was reinstated, and it has gradually grown into the consideration of the legislature and the people. If any institution or board of trustees has to be investigated, it is looked into by our secretary; and usually it can be straightened out without any further action. If further action is required, the governor can appoint a committee to go to the institution, call for books and papers, and make a thorough investigation, and report. The people of the state believe in the report of the State Board. We have no axes to grind. We have no personal interest in the matter. The people of Ohio accept our reports. And so, when there is anything to be legislated on, they always call us in. I remember one time, not long ago, when we were drawing up rules for the reformatory. I drew them up, after consultation with our board of trustees; and we put in a provision that was new. It was granting power that had never been given before. When it came up, I was sitting in the Senate; and one of the senators sitting there was chairman of the Committee on Finance. And he said: "That is new. I do not know about that." "Yes," said another, "but I have been here a good while, and I have never been sorry for voting for anything recommended by the State Board of Charities; and I shall vote for that."

Mr. L. C. STORRS, Michigan.— I am secretary of a State Board of Corrections and Charities that has been in existence thirty years, and I want to speak of three things. In regard to the residence of members of local boards, Michigan not only does not prohibit resident members of institution boards, but the law requires that two members of each local board of her asylums for the insane shall reside within three miles of the institution. Each of our asylums for the insane has a board of six trustees. I do not believe that the trouble is with the appointment of local trustees, but in the abominable practice of donating sites for state institutions, which results in the people feeling that an institution belongs to them because they have given the site. We have one state institution secured to the place where it was established not only by the gift of the site, but by a donation of $25,000 additional.

In regard to finances. Our state is an old state; and the State

Board of Corrections and Charities has nothing to do with finances of state institutions, as in some of the younger states. They settle their finances with the auditor-general's department.

As to appropriations. The law requires that all the estimates of proposed appropriations, before being submitted to the legislature, shall be submitted to the State Board of Corrections and Charities; and such board sends to the legislature a written opinion as to what proportion of such proposed appropriation should be provided. We find it necessary frequently to cut down some of the proposed appropriations, but in such cases we cut out the things least necessary. After an appropriation is made for any building or for any special purpose, the amount cannot be drawn from the treasury until the State Board files with the auditor-general an opinion that the work can be done within the amount appropriated therefor. The only real power our board has is in this particular; and it is the only power a State Board of Charities should have, in my opinion.

Mr. EAGLESON, Columbus, Ohio.— I can see no reason why the immediate neighbors of an institution, where people are more interested in doing for it, should be prohibited from being on a board. I myself was superintendent of one of the public institutions of Ohio; and I must say that, being in close contact with the institution, I often felt that, if I had a good man near by who was well qualified for being a trustee of my educational institution, I could have used him greatly to the advantage of the institution. And I believe that will generally be true. I know in the institutions at Columbus, in the past, when political conditions did not control all the boards of trustees, as they control now, even in Ohio, they had men of ability serving on these boards; and the institutions came to a high grade,— a grade that they have not attained since political influences have crept in. If you have five little bullet-headed politicians as members of a board of trustees from beyond the locality where the institution is, one of them might just as well be from the local territory. There is no good reason for that provision in the Ohio law. The local trustees must be of the right character.

Mr. FOX.— It seems to me, if the system were non-partisan, and great care were taken to select a strong man from the locality where the institution is, that the system would work thoroughly well.

President FAULKNER.— We may not be able to change existing conditions to a standard of common approval, but we will all agree to the improvements indicated as a prevention of acknowledged evil. If laws may not be amended, practices within the control of discretion may be. The hand of progress can be moved forward by the voluntary recognition of the principle that the office of a trustee is that of a guardian of the public interests, and must not be open to any suspicion that it is administered with an aim to personal profit or in purveying to social or political demands. Just as trustees may rightfully demand that the power which appoints them to

office must not hamper their freedom of choice and conduct in the manifest discharge of official duty, so ought they to concede a similar privilege to the superintendents appointed by them to manage the institutions designed for the care of the wards of the public.

Mr. SNYDER, Kansas.— I represent the only partisan board in this Conference, I presume. Our board is intensely partisan. We are made so by the conditions that prevail in this state. It is war to the knife between the political parties. When we came into power, we found the Populists in entire control. They had fired out the Republicans, and it did not take us long to ask them to walk out. It is a very easy matter, just to write a note: "*Dear Sir*,— Your services will not be needed after this date." No trouble about it at all. I am not an advocate of this system of partisan control in charitable institutions. I believe it is all wrong. But the charitable institutions at present are in good shape. I know whereof I speak. We are going to make some recommendations to the legislature, and the first will be that the state board be made non-partisan. That means that two of us Republicans will walk the plank, but that is all right. We care more for the success of the institutions than to gratify any personal ambitions.

Our board is entirely executive. We *do* things in Kansas. They call us cranks, but cranks make things go. We appoint all of our employees, and we give the superintendent the right to discharge for sufficient cause. We have had to occasionally reinstate employees improperly discharged. These people need protection. Superintendents are like other people: they make mistakes. They are just like us. I would like to show you the condition of politics in this state, and how intensely partisan it is. As a patriotic citizen, I would like to divorce this sentiment from the control of our institutions; and I think we shall be able to do this.

In 1895 we had two Houses of Representatives doing business, or pretending to, in this hall. Each party organized the house. We had a Republican and a Populist house, each with a complete set of officers. It was comical. It was a genuine legislative farce, two speakers presiding over two separate houses from the same speaker's desk at the same time. The Republican organization finally won out, and since then our legislatures have been orderly and the members appear to be sane. Where partisanship is as strong as it has been in Kansas since 1890, it is very difficult to make any part of the state administration non-partisan; but I believe we have reached a point now where it will be possible to at least take the charitable institutions out of partisan control. This now seems to be the prevailing sentiment of thinking men of all parties.

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT.— In Illinois, where there is a board of state charities with no executive functions and local boards of trustees, no one residing in the county can be a trustee. The result has been helpful. If you appoint incompetent men, it does not make any dif-

ference where they live. A first-class man is all right wherever he lives. The daily intermeddling with the management of a superintendent and the constant appeal to local employees is a disadvantage. That is true, not only of charitable, but of educational interests.

Adjourned at 12 M.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Wednesday night, May 23.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President. The report of the Committee on County and Municipal Charities was presented. A paper on the "Centralizing Tendencies in the Administration of Charities and Correction" was read by the chairman, Mr. Hugh F. Fox (page 106).

DISCUSSION ON COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL CHARITIES.

Mr. ERNEST P. BICKNELL, Chicago.— It seemed to me, in listening to the paper that has been read, that the whole drift of circumstances and of affairs in this country is one that is simple, logical, and inevitable. At the very start we emphasized individual liberty. Originally, that was what we were here for,— because we wanted our liberties. We began with the general recognition of the liberty of the individual to govern his own affairs. As our population has increased, and as the need for some sort of restraint has increased, we have had to gradually give up our individual liberty, which was almost license at times. Step by step, year after year, we have drawn away from our starting-point. The desire of the individual for the greatest possible amount of freedom led in itself to the greatest confusion and friction; and he was forced in self-defence to combine with other people, and that led to local boards, and state boards, and boards of control. I feel as if this were as inevitable and as irresistible as the progress of civilization and the progress of the world. It is just as sure to come as that some day China will yield to the influences of civilization. It may be by harsh processes, by many mistakes. We may take these steps individually, and not agree as to the wisdom of what we are doing. We may step back at times. There must be reverses now and then. The tide is resistless. We may fight it a little while, but we are bound to yield. I believe that good will come out of it for all the states in this country. The burden will become greater and greater upon the state. The manner of caring for our dependants of all kinds will tend to increase in expense as it becomes more efficient. The old, crude ways that satisfied for a while do not satisfy now. The char-

acter of the service will become more expensive in order to be more efficient. The number of dependants will increase as communities grow more dense. The burden will continually grow heavier. Thus, in course of time, we shall be driven to a greater consideration of preventive instead of custodial and curative methods. When we are driven by circumstances to a recognition of the fact that we cannot carry this thing, that it is going to swamp us, then we shall be prepared to adopt measures in a preventive way, which now seem to us too great a curtailment of individual liberty. We shall be prepared to adopt measures which now seem to us drastic in the extreme, but they will bring the best results to the greatest number of people. I believe the whole thing is as logical and as inevitable as the rising and setting of the sun.

The following resolutions, reported from the Committee on Resolutions, Mr. R. W. Hebberd, New York, chairman, were adopted unanimously by a rising vote: —

Resolved, That the thanks of the Twenty-seventh National Conference of Charities and Correction, held at Topeka, Kan., May 18–24, 1900, are due and are hereby most cordially given to the governor and other officers of Kansas, to the citizens of Topeka, and especially to the ladies, to the First Methodist and other churches, to the officers of the Haskell Institute at Lawrence and of the Kansas Reform School at North Topeka, and to the Rock Island, Chicago & Pacific, and the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad Companies, for their kind hospitality, which is much appreciated, and will long be remembered by the members of the Conference.

Resolved, That the State Corresponding Secretaries be requested to report to the Conference of 1901 what charitable and correctional institutions in their several states are under political control, to what extent politics affect their institutions, and, especially, any flagrant cases of abuse from that cause.

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction, assembled at Topeka, Kan., May 18–24, 1900, records with sorrow and regret the deep sense of loss it has sustained through the early death of Nathaniel S. Rosenau since the last meeting of the Conference.

Mr. Rosenau was for many years a member of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and a regular attendant at its meetings. For a long time holding official positions of great importance in charitable work, he brought to the councils of the Conference an intelligent conception and a practical knowledge of such work, together with an ardent enthusiasm and an ability which proved a helpful force in shaping the work of the Conference toward beneficent results. Being, moreover, of a kind and genial nature, he made many warm personal friends among the members of the Conference, who gained inspiration from his devotion, and will ever miss his presence at its gatherings, and bear him in most kindly recollection.

Resolved, That this minute be printed in the Proceedings of the Conference, and that a copy be sent to the family of the deceased, with an expression of the profound sympathy of the Conference in their bereavement.

Resolved, That this Conference desires to express its sorrow for the loss which its members and the charitable world have suffered in the death of Professor Amos G. Warner.

Mr. Warner was first brought into charity work while a graduate student at the Johns Hopkins University, about 1885, in connection with the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore, and soon became the general secretary of that society. After a few years' service there, he returned in 1888 to his native state, Nebraska, to teach in her university. From there he was soon called to Washington, D.C., to act as its first Commissioner of Public Charities. He was called from there to wider opportunities as professor in the department of economics and sociology at Leland Stanford University, where he remained until incapacitated for serious work by illness. His first connection with this Conference was at Omaha in 1887.

In all his work Dr. Warner was fired by an intense earnestness and devotion to the cause of intelligent, thoughtful charity. He never shirked a disagreeable responsibility. He literally sacrificed himself to his work. The seeds of his fatal disease were sowed in Washington, where he had to face many discouragements and to do much more work than his strong physique was equal to.

Intellectually he had a vigorous mind and a rarely clear and philosophic grasp of principles, combined with great common sense. His work on "American Charities" is the standard work on the subject, and has been a help and inspiration to many students and workers.

Resolved, That a copy of this resolution be sent to Dr. Warner's widow and children, with the expression of the sympathy of the members of the Conference with them in their sorrow.

President FAULKNER.— I would like to express my personal appreciation of the kindness of the people of this city in making provision for the reception and entertainment of this Conference. For many years I assumed a large share of the responsibility and effort in endeavors to secure a session of the Conference for Kansas; and it is peculiarly gratifying to me to now return thanks to so many of my old neighbors and friends of Kansas, who have so kindly aided in the work. Whatever doubts may have existed concerning the propriety of holding a session of the Conference in Kansas at this time are dispelled in the presence of accomplished good. Both Kansas and Missouri have laid the foundations for the organization of state conferences of charities and correction, and the discussions which have taken place will be fruitful of a larger and more kindly concern in the fraternity of charity.

President Faulkner then introduced his successor, Mr. John M. Glenn, of Baltimore, President of the Twenty-eighth Conference.

Mr. JOHN M. GLENN.— *Ladies and Gentlemen*, — I feel deeply the honor that you have done me in electing me your next President. There is no body of people whose affectionate regard I care so much

for as the National Conference of Charities and Correction. I have been a member since 1888, when you met in Buffalo. At that meeting I got a new idea of this work from my experience there; and from what I heard from the men and women who talked, and whom I had the good fortune to meet, I got a new idea of the possibilities of life. Ever since I have been attending these Conferences, and learning from those whose acquaintance I have made in all parts of the country; and I have found this to be of great value to me. We are to have our next Conference in Washington, and that will be a rare opportunity in many directions. To meet in the national capital ought to bring us before the public in a way that no other city could do. I hope we may also bring into our meeting there distinguished foreigners who have had experience in similar work across the water. As a Southern man, I hope the Washington meeting will help to stir up more interest in the South in charitable work.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

THE SESSION AT THE SOLDIERS' HOME.

Thursday, May 24.

The Conference left Topeka at 8.30 A.M., and went to Lansing, Kan., and visited the Kansas state prison, going through the various buildings and seeing the industries. The following facts relating to the prison were imparted in a printed leaflet which was distributed: —

The enclosure contains 10 acres; the youngest convict is 15 years of age; 23 counties have no convicts here; the oldest convict is 77 years of age; 9 convicts have died here during the last year; there are 26 old soldiers serving sentence here; the library contains 5,156 books and 941 bound magazines; the daily capacity of the bakery is 600 4-pound loaves of bread; there are 24 old soldiers employed as officers here; the 3 cell houses contain 1,032 cells; this is the only penal institution in the United States where coal is mined; the average cost per day for maintenance of the prison is $500; Wyandotte County has the largest number of convicts, 64; upon an average, one prisoner enters and one prisoner leaves this institution each day; during the last month 1,728 letters were received by convicts, and 1,276 letters were written by them; there are 215 prisoners here from the territory of Oklahoma, which has no penitentiary of its own; the number of convicts having served sentence, together with those now confined, is 9,337.

The coal mine is 720 feet below the surface. It requires 500 small cars to handle the product of the mine, which is about 7,000 bushels daily, when a full force is working. The coal vein is 22 inches thick.

The entire product of the mine is used in the state institutions, and none of it is sold.

The following are a few of the improvements which have been made during the last year, with their estimated values: —

A twine plant with a capacity of 11,000 pounds per day, $40,000; a brick warehouse for twine plant, 50 x 150, 40 feet high, $8,000; a brick plant with a capacity of 20,000 per day, $8,000; a school-house under construction, $20,000; coal shaft retimbered, $10,000; new wells to increase water supply, $3,000; two thousand feet of track for coal cars, $1,000.

The goods manufactured each year by the clothing department are: —

Officers' suits, 200; prisoners' coats, 1,000; prisoners' pants, 2,000; prisoners' shirts, 5,000; prisoners' overalls, 3,000; prisoners' caps, 1,500; pairs socks, 4,000; suits underwear, 1,000; discharge suits, 400; towels, 2,000; also aprons, ticks, slips, etc., for the entire institution.

During the last month 4,189 library books were read by prisoners: biographical, 44; classical, 40; cyclopædiæ, 19; historical, 96; juvenile, 98; legal and political, 38; light literature, 1,240; bound magazines, 2,159; miscellaneous, 114; poetical, 39; religious, 91; scientific, 94; travel and adventure, 97; foreign languages, 20.

The amount of food required per week to feed the convicts is: bread, 11,690 pounds; beef, 3,500 pounds; bacon, 1,200 pounds; Bologna, 575 pounds; liver, 1,000 pounds; coffee, 260 pounds; tea, 50 pounds; dried fruit, 175 pounds; rice, 250 pounds; beans, 1,000 pounds; peas, 800 pounds; hominy, 350 pounds; butter, 140 pounds; potatoes, 140 bushels; syrup, 175 gallons.

Of vegetables in season, the amounts required for one meal are: pumpkins, 2,500 pounds; cabbages, 2,000 pounds; pie-plants, 1,400 pounds; turnips, 35 bushels; sweet potatoes, 35 bushels; roasting ears, 400 dozen.

There are 1,000 prisoners confined here: white males, 730; white females, 7; colored males, 244; colored females, 14; Mexican males, 3; Indian males, 2.

From the prison the Conference went to the Soldiers' Home near Leavenworth. They were received in the large assembly hall by the commandant of the home, Colonel J. G. Rowland, who welcomed the members and gave them the following facts about the institution.

Of the 40,000 soldiers taken care of by the United States in the 3 national and 8 state homes, the branch in Kansas has about 3,400 men. The home consists of 47 buildings and 640 acres of land. About 450 of the men are employed, with pay, in caring for the grounds and doing the work of the establishment. For the work requiring much physical strength outside help is hired. The average age of the veterans is sixty-four.

Major R. W. McClaughry, the superintendent of the United States Penitentiary at Fort Leavenworth, was asked to speak.

Major McClaughry.— The Conference of Charities and Correction is very welcome to Kansas, for it has always exercised a most helpful influence in our work. We have our National Prison Association, in which the prison men of the country meet to discuss their own problems, but we always feel that we derive from the publications of the Conference of Charities and Correction much assistance, when we are not able to attend the meetings of this body; and all of us who have correctional work to do depend on your reports as valuable reference books. The United States Penitentiary, of which I now have charge, is about eight miles from here. It was formerly a military prison. It was turned over to the Department of Justice by the Department of War, pursuant to an act of Congress, in 1895, The prison itself is a mere shell. It was a collection of quartermaster's buildings at Fort Leavenworth, in which cells were placed; and it was called a prison. But the United States government is now building, on a piece of land ceded by the military to the civil department, a prison with enclosing walls eight hundred feet by nine hundred in extent; and, when it is completed, it is hoped that it will be one of the model prisons of the country. The United States ought to, and I believe will, adopt the most improved methods, not only in the construction of buildings, but in the administration of the prison. We shall be glad to have you all visit the prison now in course of construction.

The Auditing Committee, consisting of Messrs. Nicholson, Bushnell, and Stewart, reported that they had audited the books of the Treasurer, and had found everything correct, and with $881.08 deposited to the credit of the Conference in Grand Rapids.

On motion the report was adopted, and ordered to be put on file.

On motion it was voted that any of the members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction who might be able to attend the meeting of the International Conference of Charities to be held in Paris should receive credentials from the President and Secretary, that they might appear as delegates, in compliance with the invitation from Paris.

The Conference then adjourned for luncheon, which was served to the members by the officers and members of the home.

On reassembling after luncheon, the Conference was called to order by President Faulkner; and the report of the Committee on Prisons was presented by Major McClaughry (page 65).

Instead of discussion of the report the members were asked to put questions to Major McClaughry. For the sake of condensation the questions are omitted, and the following is a summary of the replies.

Major McClaughry.— In the act which provided for the establishment of a new United States prison, it was stipulated that, when it is occupied, the old one shall revert to the War Department. It is not yet decided whether they will use it again as a quartermaster's department or whether they will use it as a military prison. At present there are no military prisons, except one in California. The men who commit infamous offences in the army are tried by court-martial, dishonorably discharged from the army, and, in addition, may be sentenced to a term in our prison. We have now about fifty such offenders.

The number of prisoners in the United States Penitentiary has nearly doubled in five years, the population of the states and territories from which they come having more than doubled in that time. We receive from the territories a large proportion of the drift-wood from the states that has passed through their state prisons. There is to be another United States prison at Atlanta. The buildings are under contract, which was let in March. It is expected that next season it will be able to take care of 200 prisoners, and with those prisoners they will construct the remaining buildings and the walls. A third prison will be established, probably west of the Rocky Mountains, for prisoners on the Pacific coast. There is a district jail in the District of Columbia, which is used for the confinement of some offenders against the United States laws; but most of the United States offenders are boarded in State penitentiaries, houses of correction, and reformatories. The penitentiary in Ohio has about 700 United States prisoners. In my prison I have 130 Indians and 170 colored people. Almost every State prison in the land has some of the United States prisoners. The prisons now in construction for the United States will not nearly accommodate all the United States prisoners. By the time they are all ready they will be filled from the vicinity.

There is no system of parole for United States prisoners; and yet, if you were to visit our prison, you would see men clad in blue, while the majority are in gray, and if you asked why, you would be told that they are paroled men. They are paroled in this way: when a man has reached within six months of the completion of his sentence, if he has proved worthy, we clothe him in blue and put him on parole of honor, and allow him to work outside the walls without guard. We have about 600 acres tilled by paroled men, out on this parole of honor. This is authorized by the department. The only good time allowed a United States prisoner is two months in every year. Those who are sentenced to a state penitentiary are allowed to make good time according to the laws of the states in

which they serve their sentences. The prisoner in Illinois can make one month of good time the first year, two the second, three the third, four the fourth, five the fifth, and six each succeeding year; but here we can allow them but two months in every year.

At present our prison school amounts to nothing, for the reason that we have no proper place for a school. Our cell houses are mere cages in the different stories of the old quartermaster shops. It is a most crude arrangement, and they are so insecure that we cannot take the men out in the evenings for school. The walls are only twelve feet high in some places, and a good active fellow could scale them without a ladder. In the new prison we shall have ample school-room, and so arranged that men can be taken out of the cell house at night and spend the entire evening in the school-room. We shall have abundance of time for instruction, and it is the intention to provide also for trade schools. We do more now in that way than we do in school work. We have schools in stone-cutting and bricklaying, and we shall continue that kind of schooling. In the summer we have large numbers of men laying brick and cutting stone, and others making brick and quarrying stone. We make the brick on the ground, getting the clay from our excavations and quarrying good stone near by. There is no better way to teach these trades than to have the men do real work. A man who is laying brick in a wall which is to be permanent will take a great deal more interest in it than if he knows his work is going to be destroyed. In winter we teach them to build walls and arches, how to line up their brickwork, etc., so that they may be prepared to do the permanent work of the next season. The Indians make the best stone-cutters that we have. They attend to their work more closely, give themselves to it more earnestly, and learn it more thoroughly than many of the white or colored men. We have a good many Indians on the farm also, and they do excellent work, and as teamsters they cannot be excelled.

The new prison is so built that, if Congress hereafter adopts the indeterminate sentence for United States prisoners, there can be full classification; and, if ever necessary, we have room for additional buildings.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. Hebberd: —

In view of the present interest in the condition of convict labor, the extent of the interests involved, the different conditions existing in the several states, and the fact that action is asked of the United States concerning this subject, therefore be it

Resolved, That this Conference, representing twenty-seven states, expresses its interest in the question of the employment of convict labor, to the end that the welfare of all the people, both the public and the inmates, shall be served.

That Congress be requested to give the most thorough and careful considera-

tion to the interests involved, in order that the most equitable practical results may be obtained.

That the Secretary be instructed at once to transmit a copy of these resolutions to the Speaker of the House of Representatives and to the President of the Senate, for presentation to the respective bodies over which they preside, and also to each member of Congress, as soon as may be practicable.

The resolution was seconded by Mr. Nicholson.

Mr. Carrington, of Colorado, thought it unwise for the Conference to pass such a resolution. He thought it should not be even suggested that legislation in Congress is unwisely or hastily entered upon.

Mr. Weller, of Chicago, thought that such a resolution could hardly be passed by a conference that avowedly passes no resolution save one of thanks. Whatever one's sympathies might be, he thought action could not well be taken by the Conference on such a motion.

Mr. Clark moved that it be laid on the table.

Mr. Hebberd said that he would withdraw the motion.

The following resolution, also offered by Mr. Hebberd, was adopted unanimously by a rising vote: —

Resolved, That the cordial thanks of the Twenty-seventh National Conference of Charities and Correction be given to the officials of the National Soldiers' Home at Leavenworth for their kind hospitality to the members of the Conference.

Adjourned *sine die* at 4 P.M.

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1900.

A. O. CROZIER, *Treasurer, in account with* THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

1899.		*Dr.*	
Oct. 1.	To Balance on hand		$268.33
	Cash received from sales of Proceedings	$991.25	
	Cash received from membership fees	2,905.41	
	Cash received from Local Committee	685.90	$4,582.56
			$4,850.89

	Cr.		
	By Cash paid for publishing and mailing Proceedings	$1,971.17	
	Cash paid for publishing *Bulletin*	271.32	
	Cash paid for printing, etc.	337.98	
	Cash paid for postage, etc.	257.38	
	Cash paid for Secretary's salary	450.00	
	Cash paid for travelling expenses (Bloomington, St. Louis, Detroit, Topeka, Lincoln, and Cedar Rapids)	27.44	
	Cash paid for clerk hire	582.50	
	Cash paid for reporting and editing (balance 1899)	95.00	
	Cash paid for reporting and editing (1900)	268.00	
	Office rent	130.00	
	Miscellaneous	146.82	$4,537.61
Sept. 30.	Balance in the treasury		313.28
			$4,850.89

TREASURER'S COMPARATIVE STATEMENT.

	Year ending Sept. 30, 1898.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1899.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1900.	
RECEIPTS.						
Balance on hand beginning year,		$987.07		$967.89		$268.33
Cash from sales of Proceedings .	$1,288.73		$1,071.03		$991.25	
Cash from membership fees and subscriptions to the *Bulletin* .	3,782.85		2,804.20		2,905.41	
Cash from advertising	68.00		60.00			
Cash from Local Committee . .	1,025.00		800.00		685.90	
Cash from interest	27.67	6,192.25	12.92	4,748.15		4,582.56
		$7,179.32		$5,716.04		$4,850.89
DISBURSEMENTS.						
Paid for publishing Proceedings,	$2,051.30		$2,007.60		$1,971.17	
Paid for publishing *Bulletin* . .	1,050.41		321.45		271.32	
Paid for printing, etc.	481.36		490.69		337.98	
Paid for postage, etc.	488.05		948.80		257.38	
Paid for salaries, etc.	1,783.46		1,512.49		1,422.94*	
Paid for office furniture . . .	127.58					
Paid for miscellaneous expenses,	129.27		166.68	5,447.71	276.82	4,537.61
Paid for cash advances	100.00	6,211.43				
Balance on hand, closing year .		$967.89		$268.33		$313.28

* Secretary's salary	$450.00
Clerk hire	582.50
Secretary's travelling expenses	27.44
Reporting and editing Conference Proceedings	363.00
Total, as above	$1,422.94

STATEMENT OF RESOURCES AND LIABILITIES TAKEN FROM THE BOOKS OF THE GENERAL SECRETARY.

	Sept. 30, 1897.		Sept. 30, 1898.		Sept. 30, 1899.		Sept. 30, 1900.	
RESOURCES.								
Cash on hand		$987		$968		$267		$313
Accounts receivable:								
State Boards	$721		$588		$572		$484	
Miscellaneous	166	887	466	1,054	619	1,191	663	1,147
Proceedings on hand	$1,848		$1,940		$2,359		$2,523	
Electro plates	300	2,148	300	2,240	300	2,659	200	2,723
Office furniture				176		176		125
Total		$4,022		$4,438		$4,293		$4,308
LIABILITIES.								
Proceedings due:								
Members	$725				$950		$908	
Purchasers	576	$1,301		$1,619	444	$1,394	414	$1,322
Accounts payable		323		89		185		146
Total		$1,624		$1,708		$1,579		$1,468
NET RESOURCES		$2,398		$2,730		$2,614		$2,840

Report of copies of Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction on hand Oct. 1, 1900: —

Year.	*No.*	*Year.*	*No.*
1874	96	1889	733
1875	47	1890	157
1877	8	1891	224
1878	13	1892	896
1881	11	1893	561
1882	31	1894	456
1883	39	1895	368
1884	155	1896	206
1885	43	1897	421
1886	33	1898	703
1887	267	1899	992
1888	269	Total	6,728

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

N. B.—Members who were in attendance at Topeka are marked.*

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Birmingham.

Allen, B. M.

Livingston.

Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Principal, Ala. Normal College for Girls.

ALASKA.

Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, D.D., LL.D., Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

ARKANSAS.

Conway.

Millar, A. C., Pres., Hendrix College.

CALIFORNIA.

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Lindley, Walter, M.D., Pres., Bd. of Trustees Whittier State Sch., 1414 S. Hope St.
Stephens, Mrs. D. G., Pres., Los Angeles Orph. Home, 1325 W. Adams St.

Oakland.

Associated Charities.
Borland, Mrs. Sarah C., Director, Asso. Char., 1157 Franklin St.
Taylor, James P., 455 9th St.

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Associated Charities.
Banning, B. R., 305 Larkin St.
Bunnell, James S., 49 2d St.
Davis, Horace, 134 California St.
Levy, Meyer H., Sec., Eureka Benev. Ass'n, Mount Zion Hosp., 105 Stockton St.
Symmes, Frank J., Vice-Pres., San Francisco Settlement Ass'n, 84 South Park.

Santa Barbara.

Fisher, Irving, Mission Hill.

Santa Paula.

Blanchard, Nathan.

Stanford University.

*Fetter, Frank A., Prof., Economics.
Smith, Mrs. Albert W., Associate Prof. of Sociology, Leland Stanford, Jr., Univ.; Director, Social Settlement, San Francisco.

Whittier.

Smith, Sherman, Supt., Whittier State Sch.

COLORADO.

Boulder.

Baker, James H., Pres., Univ. of Col.
Williams, Mrs. Harriet E.

Colorado Springs.

Erich, L. R., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
*Evans-Carrington, Rev. E., 227 E. Cucharra St.
Slocum, William F., Pres., Colorado College.

Denver.

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Baker, Mrs. E. B., State Supt., Prison Work W. C. T. U., 1358 Gilpin St.
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Decker, Mrs. Sarah S., Pres., State Bd. Char. and Cor.
*George, Mrs. S. Izetta, Sec., Char. Org. Soc.; Pres., State Bd. Control, Indus. Sch. for Girls, 35 Court St.
Lawney, Eleanor, M.D., Member, State Bd. Char. and Cor.
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Woman's Club of Denver.

Golden.

*Olds, Barnard L., Supt., State Indus. Sch.

Pueblo.

*Bierbower, Miss Susan, Supt., Pueblo Hosp., 9th and Summit Sts.
*McDonald, Mrs. W. H., Sec., Asso. Char.; Sec., State Sch. for Deaf and Blind, Colorado Springs, 304 N. Main St.

CONNECTICUT.

Danbury.

Merritt, Charles H.

Deep River.

Spencer, George F., Member, Conn. State Bd. Char.

Fairfield.

Glover, Mrs. Emily H., Fairfield Co. Home for Neg. and Dep. Chdn., Norwalk; and Conn. Chdn's. Aid Soc., Hartford.

Farmington.

Pope, Miss Theodate.

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Greene, Col. Jacob L., Dir., Char. Org. Soc.
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Huntington, R. W., Jr.
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Litchfield.

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Perkins, Hon. J. Deming.
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Meriden.

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Williams, C. M., Supt., Sch. for Boys.

Middletown.

Atwater, W. O., Prof., Wesleyan Univ.
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Naugatuck.

Whittemore, J. H.

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Stokes, Anson Phelps, Jr., Yale Univ.

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Norwalk.

Smith, Edwin Everett, M.D.

Norwich.

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Wethersfield.

Garvin, A., Warden, State Prison.

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Gawthrop, Alfred, Chairman, Administration Com., Ferris Indus. Sch.
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Strong, Rev. Sydney.

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*Clark, C. J., Sheriff.
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Gavisk, Rev. Francis H., Pres., St. Vincent de Paul Soc., 126 W. Georgia St.
Greely, Miss Laura, Chief Clerk, Bd. State Char.
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Mount, James A., Governor, Pres. *ex officio*, Bd. State Char.
Peelle, Mrs. Margaret F., Member, Bd. State Char.

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Spink, Mary A., M.D., Member, Bd. State Char.
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Zuisut, Miss Hannah W., Sec., Orph. Home Soc.

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Logansport.

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*Whittaker, W. H., Clerk, Indiana State Prison.

Muncie.

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Plainfield.

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Richmond.

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Seymour.

Schneck, Louis.

Terre Haute.

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Zipp.

Boeke, Mrs. Mary, Matron, Co. Poor Asyl.

IOWA.

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Council Bluffs.

Lemen, J. G.

Davenport.

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Des Moines.

Fitzhugh, Alexander, 507 Locust St.
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*Kinne, L. G., Chairman, Bd. Control, State Insts. of Iowa.

Glenwood.

*Powell, Dr. F. M., Supt., Iowa Inst. for Feeble-minded Chdn.

Iowa City.

Brown, Miss Florence E., Supt., Iowa State Univ. Hosp.

Keokuk.

*Cosper, Walter L., Gen. Sec., Asso. Char.

Malvern.

Slothower, Rev. A. E.

KANSAS.

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*Hillis, E. L., Supt., Soldiers' Orph. Home, Atchison.
Seaton, Capt. John.

Beloit.

*Hanback, Mrs. Hester A., Supt., Indus. Sch. for Girls.

Burlington.

*Ballinger, T. C., Director, Kan. State Penitentiary.

Emporia.

*Plumb, Mrs. P. B.

Enterprise.

*Case, Mrs. Lottie A., Pres., 5th Dist., W.C.T.U.

Fort Leavenworth.

McClaughry, Major R. W., Warden, U.S. Penitentiary.

Fort Scott.

Donaldson, Grant.

Fredonia.

*Gilmore, John S., Director, Kan. State Penitentiary.

Garden City.

*Jessup, A. R.

Hutchinson.

Simmons, J. S., Supt., Reformatory.

Kansas City.

Williams, Lapier.

Lansing.

*Tomlinson, J. B., Warden, State Penitentiary.

Lawrence.

*Blackmar, Frank W., Ph.D., Prof. Sociology and Economics, Univ. of Kan.; Pres., Kan. Ass'n Char. and Cor.
Bowersock, J. D., M.C.
Dixon, C. R., M.D., Asst. Supt. and Phys., Haskell Institute.
*Peairs, H. B., Supt., Haskell Institute.

Leavenworth.

Fenn, Rev. Charles Hawley.

Lincoln.

*McFarland, E. A., Director, Kan. State Penitentiary.

Olathe.

Hammond, H. C.

Osawatomie.

*Uhls, Lyman L., Supt., State Insane Asyl.

Oskaloosa.

Snyder, Edwin, Sec., State Bd. Char.

Ottawa.

Harris, J. P.

Saffordville.

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Sedgwick.

*Kanavel, G. W., Treas., State Bd. Char.

Sterling.

*Hammond, B. D., Chairman, Bd. Co. Com'rs, Rice Co.

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*Harrison, T. W.
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Mulvane, John R.

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*Vincent, K.

White Cloud.

*Kedley, Philip, Member, Bd. State Indus. Reformatory, Hutchinson.

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Linden.

Doolittle, Mrs. Lucy.

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Gregory, William, Member, Bd. State Char. and Cor.

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Boucher, Phillipe, Member, Bd. State Char. and Cor.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

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Joyner, Archdeacon Edmund N., Indus. Rescue Mission for Outcast Negro Boys, 1309 Sumpter St.

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*Samfield. Max, M.D., Pres., U. H. Relief Ass'n.; Trustee, Jewish Orph. Asyl. of Cleveland, Ohio, 31 Market St.
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Rice, J. S., Superintendent, Texas State Penitentiaries.

New Braunfels.

Clemens, W., Chairman, Penitentiary Bd.

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Lawton, S. E., M.D., Supt. and Phys., Brattleboro Retreat.

Burlington.

Richardson, Mrs. A. E., 52 Williams St.
Torrey, Mrs. S. P., Pres., Home for Destitute Chdn., 75 S. Prospect St.

VIRGINIA.

Alexandria.

Robinson, Rev. Robert B., Pres., John Hay Normal and Indus. Sch.; Indus. Dept. of Nat. Fed. of Labor, 801 E. Madison St.

Hot Springs.

Chapin, F. W., M.D.

Richmond.

*Davis, George B., Supt., Pub. Char.

WASHINGTON.

Tacoma.

*Lister, Ernest, Comr., Pub. Institutions.

Seattle.

*Thwing, Clarence, M.D., Sec., Seattle Char. Org. Soc., 404 N.Y. Blk.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Salem.

*Clohan, Miss Elizabeth, Supt., Indus. Sch. for Girls.

Wheeling.

Jones, Harriet B., M.D., Pres. Bd. Dir., W. Va. Indus. Home for Girls, 52 15th St.

WISCONSIN.

Ashland.

Shores, Mrs. E. A., Director, Indus. Sch. for Girls, Elmhurst St.

Chippewa Falls.

Wilmarth, A. W., M.D., Supt., Home for Feeble-minded.

Green Bay.

Heg, James E., Supt., Wis. State Ref'y.

Hickory.

Robbins, M. M., M.D.

Lancaster.

Alderson, Mrs. E. C.

Madison.

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Naughtin, Rev. J. M., 222 W. Main St.
Tappins, M. J., Sec., State Bd. of Control.
*Wright, Prof. A. O., U. S. Supervisor Indian Schs.; Pres., Wis. Chdn's. Home Soc., 21 E. Wilson St.

Mendota.

Lyman, W. B., M.D.

Menominie.

*Stout, J. H., Trustee, Dunn Co. Asyl. for Chron. Insane.

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Associated Charities.
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Petherick, W. R., Member, State Bd. of Control.

Monroe.

Treat, Nathaniel B., Member, State Bd. Control.

New Richmond.

Degnan, Rev. W. E., D.D., Pastor, Church of Immaculate Conception.

Rhinelander.

Bishop, George W., Member, State Bd. Control.

Sparta.

*Park, M. T., Supt., State Pub. Sch.
*Park, Mrs. M. T., Member, State Bd. Control.

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Merica, C. O., Supt., Wis. Indus. Sch. for Boys.

Waupaca.

*Nelson, Andrew G., Member, State Bd. Control.

Waupun.

*McClaughry, C. C., Warden, Wis. State Prison.

Wauwatosa.

Dewey, Richard, M.D., Phys. in charge Milwaukee Sanitarium, Wauwatosa, Wis.; Prof. Nervous and Mental Diseases, Chicago Post-grad. Sch.; Chicago office, 34 Washington St.

Winnebago.

Gordon, W. A., M.D., Supt., Northern Hosp. for Insane.

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Macdonald, J. K.
Prisoners' Aid Association of Canada, 62 Queen St.

Toronto, *Continued*—

Rosebrugh, A. M., M.D., Sec., Prisoners' Aid Association, 62 Queen St.

*Taylor, Edward, Charity Comr., City Hall.

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CHILE.

Santiago.

Montt, Pedro, Adm'r, Casa de Orates (Insane Hosp.), Portal McClure.

CUBA.

Havana.

Gill, Miss L. D., Head Worker in Cuba, Cuban Orph. Soc., care N. A. Trust Co.

*Suarez, M. R., Asst. Supt., Char. Dept., Island of Cuba.

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GERMANY.

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JAPAN.

Tokyo.

Niwa, S., Y. M. C. A., Kanda.

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*Ornelas, Plutarco, M.D., Member, Med. Nat. Inst. of Mexico; Delegate of Mexican Government; Mexican Consul, 307 Alamo Plaza, San Antonio, Tex.

NEW ZEALAND.

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STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

State Capitol, Denver.

[Established by Public Act of the Laws of 1891, approved March 19, 1891.]

Gov. Charles S. Thomas, *ex officio*.....Denver
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O. S. Storrs.....Denver
J. S. Appel.....Denver
Dr. Eleanor Lawney.....Denver
Rev. Thomas H. Malone.....Denver
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C. L. Stonaker, *Secretary*.....State Capitol, Denver
J. S. Appel, *Vice-President*.....Denver

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STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

State Capitol, Hartford.

[Established by Chapter 45, Public Acts of Laws of 1873, passed July 1, 1873.]

Edwin A. Down, M.D.....Hartford
George F. Spencer.....Deep River
H. H. Bridgman.....Norfolk
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon.....New Haven
Miss Mary Hall.....Hartford

Officers of the Board.

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Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, *Agent for County Temporary Homes*.....New Haven
Miss Mary Hall, *Agent for County Temporary Homes*.....Hartford
Charles P. Kellogg, *Secretary and General Agent*.....Waterbury

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BOARD OF CHARITIES.

Office, 464 Louisiana Ave.

[Established by Act of Congress, approved June 6, 1900.]

S. W. Woodward.....Washington
George William Cook.....Washington
Simon Wolf.....Washington
Dr. Charles P. Neill.....Washington
John Joy Edson.....Washington

Officers of the Board.

S. W. Woodward, *President*.....Washington
George S. Wilson, *Secretary*.....Washington
Charles P. Neill, *Vice-President*, Washington

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THE PRISON COMMISSION OF GEORGIA.

Atlanta.

[Established by Acts of 1897, passed December 21, 1897.]

Joseph S. Turner.....Eatonton Clement A. Evans.....Atlanta
Thomas Eason.....McRae

Officers of the Commission.

Joseph S. Turner, *Chairman*.....Eatonton Jacob C. Moore, *Warden*.....
Goodloe Yancey, *Secretary*.

ILLINOIS.

THE BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

State House, Springfield.

[Established by an Act of Legislature, approved April 9, 1869.]

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Julia C. Lathrop.....Rockford Robert Bell.....Mount Carme
Lafayette Funk.....Shirley

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BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Room 52, State House, Indianapolis.

[Established by Chapter 37, Acts of 1889, passed February 28, 1889.]

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Mary A. Spink.....Indianapolis John R. Elder.....Indianapolis
Margaret F. Peelle.....Indianapolis Timothy Nicholson.....Richmond

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Gov. James A. Mount, *ex-officio President*.....Indianapolis Amos W. Butler, *Secretary*.....Indianapolis

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BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, Des Moines.

[Established by Chapter 118, Laws of the 27th General Assembly, passed March 29, 1898.]

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G. S. Robinson.....Sioux City

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L. C. Kinne, *Chairman*.....Des Moines F. S. Treat, *Secretary*.....Des Moines

KANSAS.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE OF KANSAS.

Topeka.

[Established by Chapter 9 of the Laws of 1868.]

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R. Vincent.....Washington
George W. Kanavel.....Halstead
Edwin Snyder.....Oskaloosa
P. H. Dolan.....Salina

Officers of the Board.

Grant Hornaday, *President*.....Fort Scott
Edwin Snyder, *Secretary*.....Oskaloosa
George W. Kanavel, *Treasurer*.....Halstead

MARYLAND.

BOARD OF STATE AID AND CHARITIES.

Office, Maryland Telephone Building, Baltimore.

[Established by Act, approved April 11, 1900.]

F. C. Latrobe.....Baltimore
James Bond.....Baltimore
John Lee Carroll.....Ellicott City
Elihu E. Jackson.....Salisbury
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Officers of the Board.

F. C. Latrobe, *President*.....Baltimore
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THE LUNACY COMMISSION.

819 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Md.

[Established by Chapter 487 of the Laws of 1886.]

John Morris, M.D.....Baltimore
Thomas S. Latimer, M.D.....Baltimore
I. E. Atkinson, M.D.....Baltimore
C. Birnie, M.D.....Taneytown
The Attorney-general, *ex officio*.

Officers of the Commission.

John Morris, M.D., *President*.....Baltimore
George J. Preston, M.D., *Secretary*..Baltimore

MASSACHUSETTS.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 79 of the Laws of 1879, passed April 30, 1879. Amended by Chapter 101 of Acts of 1886 and Chapter 433, § 24, of Acts of 1898.]

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Henrietta G. Codman, *Vice-Chairman*, Brookline
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Edward Hitchcock, M.D.....Amherst
Laban Pratt.....Boston
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William P. Derby, M.D., *Superintendent of State Minor Wards*.....Boston
John D. Wells, *Clerk and Auditor of the Board*.....Boston

STATE BOARD OF INSANITY.

State House, Boston, Mass.

[Established by Chapter 433 of the Laws of 1898, passed October 1, 1898.]

George F. Jelly, M.D.....Boston
Herbert B. Howard, M.D.....Boston
Charles R. Codman.....Barnstable
Albert L. Harwood.....Newton Centre
Francis B. Gardner.....Brockton

Officers of the Board.

George F. Jelly, M.D., *Chairman*.....Boston
Owen Copp, M.D., *Secretary and Executive Officer*.....

STATE COMMISSION OF PRISONS.

State House, Boston.

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Arthur H. Wellman.....Malden
Herbert D. Ward.....Newton Centre
Mrs. Margaret P. Russell.....Boston
Dr. Mary V. O'Callaghan.....Worcester

Officers of the Board.

J. Warren Bailey, *Secretary*.

MICHIGAN.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Capitol, Lansing.

[Established by Act 192 of the Laws of 1871, passed April 17, 1871.]

The Governor, *ex officio*.....Detroit
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, D.D., Grand Rapids
Arthur Leland Worden, M.D.....Detroit
Thomas A. Hilton.....Coldwater
Charles W. Light.....Saginaw

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Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, D.D., *Chairman*.....Grand Rapids
L. C. Storrs, *Secretary*.....Lansing

MINNESOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

State Capitol, St. Paul, Minn.

[Established by Chapter 1, General Laws, passed March 2, 1883.]

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W. W. Folwell.....Minneapolis
E. C. Gridley.....Duluth
J. H. Rich.....Red Wing
Gustaf Wahlund.....Spring Lake
John W. Willis.....St. Paul

Officers of the Board.

Gov. John Lind, *ex-officio President*....St. Paul
W. A. Gates, *Agent*.....St. Paul
James F. Jackson, *Secretary*.....St. Paul

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State Capitol, St. Paul.

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MISSOURI.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Jefferson City.

[Established by Senate Bill 320 of the Laws of 1897, passed March 19, 1897.]

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Mrs. E. B. Ingalls.....St. Louis
H. E. Robinson.....Maryville
R. M. Abercrombie.....St. Joseph
T. P. Haley.....Kansas City
R. E. Young.....Jefferson City

Officers of the Board.

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NEBRASKA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS.

Capitol, Lincoln.

[Established by Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1877, passed February 13, 1877. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1875.]

Jacob B. Wolfe.....Lincoln
C. J. Smythe.....Lincoln
J. B. Meserve.....Lincoln
W. F. Porter.....Lincoln

Officers of the Board.

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W. F. Porter, *Secretary*.....Lincoln

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STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

State House, Concord.

[Established by Chapter 116 of the Laws of 1895, passed July 1, 1895.]

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NEW JERSEY.

STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

Office, Fuller Building, Jersey City.

[Established by Legislative Enactment, March 24, 1899.]

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Joseph McCrystal.....Paterson
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707 Belmont Avenue, Nashville.

[Established by Chapter 193 of the Laws of 1895, passed May 13, 1895.]

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Ernest Lister, *Secretary and Commissioner of Public Institutions*.....Tacoma

WISCONSIN.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

State Capitol, Madison.

[Established by Chapter 202 of the Laws of 1891.]

William P. Lyon.....Madison
Andrew G. Nelson.....Waupaca
E. R. Petherick.....Milwaukee
George W. Bishop.....Rhinelander
Nathaniel B. Treat.....Monroe

Officers of the Board.

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M. J. Tappins, *Secretary*.....Madison

WYOMING.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

State Capitol, Cheyenne.

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T. T. Tynan.....Sheridan
Fenimore Chatterton.....Rawlins
Le Roy Grant.....Laramie
G. E. Abbott.....Cheyenne

Officers of the Board.

De Forest Richards, *President*.....Douglas
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INDEX OF WRITERS AND SPEAKERS.

Alexander, J. D., 428.
Allison, James, 422.
Almy, Frederic, 134.
Atkinson, Frank T., 353.

Bain, T. H., 422.
Ball, W. C., 419.
Banning, Ephraim, 432.
Barbour, Levi L., 51.
Bicknell, E. P., 444.
Black, Mrs. Nellie Peters, 305.
Blackmar, Frank Wilson, 27, 115, 310.
Borden, Mary J., 339.
Brasted, B. H., 349.
Brinkerhoff, 400, 416, 428.
Brockway, Z. R., 421.
Brown, J. W., 211.
Buckner, R. C., 361.
Butler, Amos W., 305, 402, 432.
Byers, Joseph P., 349.

Carrington, Mr., 427.
Charlton, T. J., 188.
Clark, A. W., 331, 397.
Clark, C. J., 436.
Clark, Mary Vida, 146.
Crozier, A. O., 413.
Cummings, Mrs. Willoughby, 367.

De Bolt, Mrs. L. N., 214.
Denson, C. B., 346.
Drake, L. D., 208, 423.
Drewry, William Francis, 364.
Duncan, H. C., 436.

Eagleson, 442.
Eastman, B. D., 89.

Faulkner, C. E., 1, 414, 420, 430, 438, 442, 446.
Fetter, Mr., 431.
Finch, C. M., 57.
Folks, Homer, 339.
Folwell, W. W., 428.
Fox, Hugh F., 106, 424, 430, 439, 442.

Gallagher, Emma A., 318.
Gardner, Henry B., 354.
Gardner, W. T., 237.
Garrett, Philip C., 34, 396.
Garver, Judge, 415.
Glenn, John M., 446.
Grout, C. S., 247.

Hancock, W. S., 195.
Harding, Eva, 243.
Hart, H. H., 286.
Hebberd, R. W., 445, 451, 452.
Heymann, Michel, 51, 320.
Hiser, Perry N., 277.
Howey, Laura E., 330.
Hughes, John A., 304.

Jackson, James F., 51, 52, 327, 423, 427, 428, 429, 430.
Jackson, Sheldon, 294.
Johnson, W. L. A., 125.
Joyner, Edmund N., 356.

Keene, George F., 426.
Kellogg, Charles P., 299.
Kinne, L. G., 173, 399, 417, 439.

Lewis, Charlton T., 51.
Lewis, Herbert W., 439.
Lincoln, Leontine, 167.
Love, Minnie C. T., 295.
Lyon, W. P., 397.

McClaughry, R. W., 65, 433, 449, 450.
McCollum, John, 436.
McCook, J. J., 51.
Macfarland, H. B. F., 303.
McLane, Kate M., 321.
Merrell, Galen A., 226.
Miller, Thomas C., 366.
Montgomery, J. B., 231.
Morgan, David, 405.
Murphy, N. O., 294.
Nibecker, 413, 418, 423.
Nicholson, Timothy, 415, 439.

Olds, Barnard L., 200.
Ornelas, Plutarco, 379.

Perry, Mary E., 329.
Polglase, W. A., 425, 432.
Pond, C. N., 271.
Powell, F. M., 70, 426, 427, 431, 432.

Rishel, E. H., 308.
Ruppenthal, J. C., 317.

St. John, Mr., 423.
Sanborn, F. B., 93, 392, 394, 401.
Sherrard, W. B., 360.
Smallwood, W. C., 265.
Smith, S. G., 83, 182, 391.
Smith, Miss Z. D., 402.
Snyder, Edwin, 424, 443.
Stanley, W. A., 390, 408.
Stevens, Mrs. L. M. N., 321.
Stonaker, C. L., 51, 399, 400, 423.
Storrs, L. C., 327, 441.
Suarez, M. R., 374, 395.

Thornburg, George, 295.
Troutman, J. A., 389.
Tuttwiler, Julia S., 292.

Varick, Melusina H., 333.

Walpole, W. R., 352.
Wells, John D., 324.
Wentworth, E. P., 220.
Whittaker, W. H., 435.
Williamson, Emily E., 159, 331, 406, 424, 430.
Wilson, George S., 256, 407.
Wright, A. O., 421, 429, 430, 435, 443.
Wright, J. Edward, 364.

NEW YORK.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 951 of the Laws of 1867, approved May 23, 1867. Re-established by Chapter 546 of the Laws of 1896, approved May 12, 1896. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

William R. Stewart.....New York
Annie G. de Peyster.....New York
Eugene A. Philbin.....New York
Stephen Smith, M.D.....New York
Edward H. Litchfield.....Brooklyn
John Notman.....Brooklyn
Simon W. Rosendale.....Albany
Newton Aldrich.....Gouverneur
Dennis McCarthy.....Syracuse
Peter Walrath.....Chittenango
Enoch V. Stoddard, M.D.....Rochester
Harvey W. Putnam.....Buffalo

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Walter S. Ufford, *Superintendent of Inspection*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 283, Laws of 1889, approved May 14, 1889. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Peter M. Wise, M.D.....Albany
William Church Osborn.....New York
William L. Parkhurst.....Albany

Officers of the Commission.

Peter M. Wise, M.D., *President*.....Albany
T. E. McGarr, *Secretary*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION OF PRISONS.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 1026 of the Laws of 1895, approved June 15, 1895. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Lispenard Stewart.....New York
Nelson Davenport.....Troy
Charles J. Boyd.....Middletown
William R. Remington.....Canton
John G. Dorrance.....Camden
William J. Mantanye.....Cortland
Sarah L. Davenport.....Bath
George B. Hayes.....Buffalo

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Nelson Davenport, *Vice-President*.....Troy

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BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

Raleigh.

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William A. Blair.....Winston
S. W. Reid.....Charlotte
Wesley M. Jones.....Raleigh

Officers of the Board.

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C. B. Denson, *Secretary*.....Raleigh

OHIO.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State House, Columbus.

[Established by Chapter 4, Revised Statutes of 1867, passed April 17, 1867.]

Roeliff Brinkerhoff.....Mansfield
William Howard Neff.....Cincinnati
Charles Parrott.....Columbus
M. D. Follett.....Marietta
H. C. Ranney.....Cleveland
W. A. Hale.....Dayton

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Gov. George K. Nash, *President ex officio*.....Columbus
Gen. Roeliff Brinkerhoff, *Chairman*..Mansfield
Joseph P. Byers, *Secretary*.....Columbus

PENNSYLVANIA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

1225 Sansom Street, Philadelphia.

[Established by Act of Legislature, passed April 4, 1869.]

Isaac J. Wistar.....Philadelphia
George W. Starr.....Erie
Henry M. Boies.....Scranton
George I. M'Leod.....Philadelphia
William B. Gill.....Philadelphia
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
Francis J. Torrance.....Allegheny
Isaac Johnson.....Media
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
Ralph Blum.....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle.....Philadelphia

Officers of the Board

Isaac J. Wistar, *President*.....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent and Secretary*.....Philadelphia

RHODE ISLAND.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

104 North Main Street, Providence.

[Established by Chapter 291, General Laws, passed May Session, 1869.]

Gov. William Gregory.....Wickford
Walter A. Read.....Chepachet
George Lewis Smith.....Nayatt
Ellery H. Wilson.....Providence
James F. McCusker.....Pontiac
R. H. I. Goddard.....Providence
Philippe Boucher.....Woonsocket
John J. Watson, Jr.....Providence

Officers of the Board.

Gov. William Gregory, *Chairman*....Wickford
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary*....Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Secretary's Office, Bridgewater.

[Established by Chapter 5, Session Laws of 1890, passed March 6, 1890. Provided for in the State Constitution.]

B. M. Lien.....Sioux Falls
L. B. Laughlin.....Bridgewater
J. P. Davis.....Huron
George W. Kingsbury.....Yankton
F. M. Steere.....Wessington Springs

Officers of the Board.

B. M. Lien, *President*.....Sioux Falls
George W. Kingsbury, *Secretary*.....Yankton

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Abnormal children, 279.
Acute insanity, treatment of, 91.
Addresses: of president, 1; of welcome, 389, 390.
Adirondack Mountains, State Hospital in, 339.
Adoption of children, 240.
Aged poor, classification of, 316.
Aged poor in Quebec, 371.
Alabama: black belt of, 274; report from, 292; feeble-minded children in, 293.
Almshouse architecture, 156.
Almshouse, The, 146.
Almshouses, children in, 336.
"American Commonwealth," 107.
Arizona, report from, 294.
Arkansas, report from, 295.
Associated Charities, Columbus, Ohio, 350.
Atlanta: penitentiary, 68; State Federation of Women's Associations, 289.

Babcock, Dr. J. W., 357.
Babies in almshouses, 336.
Backward Children: article by Dr. Powell, 427; 72, 424.
Badges for reform schools, 206.
Baily, Joshua L., 37.
Barrows, S. J., 65.
Battle Creek Sanatorium, branch of, 297.
Berry, Dr. May, 73.
Bible, views about, 14.
Bicknell, Ernest, 190.
Bielefeld Colony, 80.
"Bird-cage" jails, 62.
Blind, school for in Indian Territory, 309.
Blockley Almshouse, 34, 39.
Board of Control of Iowa, 399.
Board of Pardons, 408.
Boards of Control, 170, 173.
Borrowers in Maryland, 323.
Bosses and spoils, 42.
Bost, Pastor John, 80.
Boston, private relief in, 141.
Boy thieves, 433.
Boys in reform school, to be placed out, 412.
Brackett, Jeffrey, R., 323.
Brewer, Professor, 3.
Brick-making for epileptics, 432.
British Columbia, report from, 372.
Brockway, Z. R., 39; letter from, 421.
Brutality, diminution of, 14.
Butler, A. W., 190.
Butte (Mont.) Associated Charities, 331.

California, care of epileptics, 78.
Campaign fund, donations to, 417.
Canada, report from, 367.
Canteen at Soldiers' Home, 37.
Care of Epileptics, The, 80, 82.
Carrol, Rev. Richard, 359.
Census of New York institutions, 345.
Centralizing tendencies in administration of charities, 106.
Charities Review, 222.
Charity organization, discussion on, 401.
Charity organization and outdoor relief, 256.
Charity organization and department of public charities, co-operation between, 344.
Charity organization principles and mission work, 271.
Charity Organization Review, 137.
Charlton, T. J., 282.
Chicago Woman's Club, 74.
Child dependence decreasing, 233.
Child-saving, 23; developments in, 226.
Children: in almshouses, 149; wanted for cheap labor, 239; in orphanages in New Hampshire, 287; records of, 336.
Children's Home Societies, 185, 297.
Chronic insane, care of in Minnesota, 88.
Church unity, lack of, 122.
Churches, co-operation of, 140.
City Federation of Women's Associations, 305.
Civil service reform, 28.
Civil service rules, 195.
Cleanliness, value of underestimated, 55.
Coal mine in Kansas prison, 447.
Coler, B. W., opposes public funds for private institutions, 287.
Colony for insane, 341.
Colorado: Industrial School for Girls, 290; prisoners paroled in, 290; report from, 295; Medical Missionary Association, 297.
Colored kindergarten, 289.
Compulsory education, 277.
Conditional liberation, 408.
Conditional pardons, 408.
Confinement cases in almshouses, 152.
Connecticut: care of epileptics in, 79; school law of, 279; Reform School for Boys, 287; report from, 299.
Constitution of Mexico, 379.
Contagion of health, the, 22.
Convicts, diminution in number of, 342.
Co-operation: of churches, 140; of superintendents, 220.
Corporation charities, 357.
Cost of charitable work increasing, 33.
Cottage plan for almshouses, 156.
Cottage system for epileptics, 70, 430.
County: jails, 147; care of insane, 84; and municipal charities, 106; officials, 130.
County and city jails, Kansas, 316.
County and farm, the, 155.
County commissioners, expenses of, 401.
Craig Colony, 77, 432.
Crippled children, hospital for, 339.
Crime: lessened through prison administration, 32; from lack of right educational methods, 117; decreasing in North Carolina, 347.
Criminal statistics, Russell County, Kansas, 317.
Criminal, the, mental vision of, 19.
Criminally disposed youth, what is to be done for? 19.
Criminals and dependants, scientific care of, 28.
Cuba, report from, 374.
Cuban relief, 374.
Custody of insane, 99.

Dakota makes provision for feeble-minded and epileptic, 71.

Day schools for mentally feeble children, 74.
Deaconess Home Society, 296.
Defective classes, segregation of, 426, 429.
Degeneration, rural, causes of, 115.
Delaware, report from, 302.
"Democracy and Liberty," 109.
Democracy in America, 107.
Destitute and neglected children, 228.
De Tocqueville, 107.
Developments in child-saving, 226.
Dewey, Admiral, 212.
Diaz, General, 379.
Diet kitchen, Columbus, Ohio, 350.
Dipsomaniacs, hospital for, 327.
Discussions: on insanity, 396; on charity organization, 401; on politics and charities, 414; on reformatories, 418; on jails, 433; on State Boards, 438; on county and municipal charities, 444.
District of Columbia: Board of Charities of, 288; report from, 303.
Drewry, Dr. W. F., 79.
Duty of State to Erring and Dependent, 6.
Dwellings of the poor in small cities, 159.

Elementary Education of Defective Children, 73.
Elmira Reformatory, 39, 311, 420.
Employees, who shall appoint them? 211.
"English Poor," 262.
Epileptic, the, report of committee on, 70, 77.
Epileptics: in almshouses, 151; in Michigan 425; in New York, 428.
Ethics, a code of needed, 223.

Factory inspectors, 338.
Family care of insane, 98, 103.
Family idea for reform school, 420.
Farm life, dangers from its isolation, 120.
Feeble-minded, the: report of committee on, 70; in almshouses, 150.
Financial books, 175.
Fireman's Home, 337.
Fiske, John, 108.
Fitch's Home for Soldiers, 301.
Florence Crittenden Home Association, 297.
Florida, report from, 304.
Folks, Homer, 83, 259.
Fort Leavenworth Penitentiary, 68, 450.
Friendly visiting, instance of, 268.
Friendly visitors, intervention of, 21.

Gallipolis, 428.
General Brinkerhoff's folly, 400.
Georgia, report from, 305.
Gheel Colony, 87, 98, 101,400.
Golden Gate Kindergarten Association, 245.
Golden Rule methods, 224.
Gonzalez, Dolores O., 387.
Gould, E. R. L., 160.
Grocery store, danger from hanging around, 119.

Hamlin, Cyrus, 292.
Hart, H. H., 184.
Hatch, H. F., 198.
Havana, work in scarce, 378.
"Healing Touch, The," 10.
Holidays, 193.
Home for incurables, 366.
Home-placing, 237.
Homœopathic hospital transferred to city of Brooklyn, 344.
Hospicio, The, 385.
Hospitals needed in the West, 315.
Howard, John, 52.
Howe, Dr. S. G., 72, 101.
Hugo, Victor, 243.

Ignorance and brutality, sisters, 23.
Illinois, care of epileptics, 78.
Indeterminate sentence in Colorado, 290.
Indian Territory: orphanages in, 290; school for blind in, 309; orphanages in, 309.
Indiana: care of epileptics in, 79; school law, 279; report from, 305; poor-law of, 403.
Indianapolis hospital for insane, 34.
Indianapolis, truancy in, 278.
Indians as stone-cutters, 451.
Indiscriminate marriage, 121.
Industrial employment for girls, 214.
Industrial Missionary Association of Alabama, 275.
Industrial Reformatory, Kansas, 312.
Industrial School for Girls, Kansas, 313.
Industrial schools, 188.
Inebriates, hospital for, 327.
Inner Mission, Stelten, 80.
Insane, the: paper on, 83; in private asylums, 181; in Alaska, 290; colony for, 341.
Insanity: treatment of, 18; incurability of, 395, 396; discussion on, 396.
Institutional relief, 134.
International Prison Congress, 65.
Iowa: care of epileptics in, 79; Board of Control of, 173.
Irving, Agnes K., 358.

Jails: management of, 52; construction of, 57; educator in crime, 119.
Jewish farm school, 353.
Jewish hospital for consumptives, 290, 296.
Johnson, Alexander, 190, 431.
Johnston, Mrs. R. D., 289.
Journal of Psycho-asthenics, 73.
Juvenile delinquency, 208.

Kansas: care of epileptics, 79; poor farms in, 125; report from, 310; Board of Trustees, 31.
Kearn's Orphanage, Utah, 290.
Kellogg-Hubbard Library, 364.
Kennedy, John, 76.
Kentucky, report from, 318.
Kerlin, Dr. E. N., 71.
Kindergarten, its place in child-saving, 243.
Kirkbride plan, 400.
"Klondyke" at Soldiers' Home, 37.

Lack of the Western country hospitals, 315.
Lakeville School for Feeble-minded, 302.
Lapeer institutions, 78.
Lathrop, Miss Julia C., 432.
Latrobe, F. C., 321.
Lawrence, Captain, 39.
Letchworth, W. P., 80, 82, 192.
Letters: to state agents, 232; from men on parole, 409; from Z. R. Brockway, 420.
Lewis, Herbert W., 289.
Lockups, jails, and workhouses, 44.
Louisiana, report from, 320.
Love: in the family, 23; the antidote for every social ill, 24.

McDowell, Mary, 74.
Mackay, Thomas, 262.
Maconochie, Captain, 104.
Maine, report from, 321.
Mann, Horace, 104.
Manning, Agnes M., 245.
Marriage: improvement of conditions of, 4; licenses, to whom should they be issued? 122; reform, 121.
Maryland: care of epileptics in, 78; Board of State Aid and Charities, 289; report from, 321.
Massachusetts: care of epileptics in, 77; school law of, 279; farm colony, 287; hospital for epileptics, 288; insane in, 288; report from, 324; hospital for epileptics, 325; school for feeble-minded, 325.
Massillon Hospital, 349.

Mechanical restraint, 174.
Mechanics, few in prison, 294.
Medical care of insane, 89.
Mentally Deficient Children, 74.
Merit and demerit system, 200.
Mexican jail, a, 60.
Mexico, report from, 291, 379.
Michigan: care of epileptics in, 78; state public school, 234; report from, 327.
Minnesota: jails, 54; care of epileptics, 78; report from, 327.
Mission work and charity organization principles, 271.
Missouri Federation of Women's Clubs, 329.
Missouri: makes provision for feeble-minded and epileptics, 71; report from, 329.
Mitchell, Dr. Weir, 87.
Model jails, 436.
Monroe, W. S., 72.
Montana, report from, 330.
Montgomery Conference, 292, 294.
Mystic Oral School, 301.

National Conference of Charities and Correction, 5, 21, 220.
National Council of Women of Canada, 368.
"National Junior Republic," 289.
National Prison Association, 449.
National Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, 296.
National Soldiers' Home, 37.
Nebraska: care of epileptics in, 79; report from, 331.
New Brunswick, report from, 372.
New Hampshire: report from, 333; number of dependent children in, 335.
New Jersey: home for girls in, 39; care of epileptics in, 77; supervising agent, 287; report from, 337.
New Mexico, report from, 339.
New York: care of epileptics, 77; report from, 339; census of charity and correction institutions in, 345; State Conference of Charities and Correction, 345.
Non-partisan boards, 439.
Non-political State Board, 187.
North Carolina, report from, 346.
North Dakota, report from, 349.
Nova Scotia, report from, 372.

Occupations for women, 219.
Ohio: care of epileptics in, 77; report from, 349.
Ontario, report from, 368.
Oregon, report from, 352.
Organization of charity, 247.
Orphanages in Indian Territory, 290.
Osawatomie John Brown, 390.
Osborne, Dr., of California, 431.
Outdoor relief: in relation to charity organization, 256; in Indiana, 307; in Syracuse, 345.
Outside relief, 131.
Overseers of Poor: in Boston, 141; in Indiana, 404.

Pacific Coast Conference of Charities, 290.
Paid State Boards, 417.
Paid workers in charity organization society, 247.
Parole law in Colorado, 290.
Paroled men, letters from, 409.
Parsons, Kan., insane asylum in, 313.
Partisan appointments, 30.
Passavant Memorial Home for Epileptics, 78.
Pauperism allied to insanity, 22.
Peeters, Dr. J. A., 101.
Pennsylvania, report from, 353; care of epileptics in, 77.
Penny Provident Society, 355.
Peterson, Dr. Frederick, 77, 81.
Philippines, the, 194.
Placing-out, increasing in New York, 287.
Police force, lack of in rural communities, 116.
Political interference, 32.
Politics in charitable and correctional affairs, 27.
Poverty, cure of, 22.
Poor-farms and pauperism in Kansas, 125.
Poor-law, of Indiana, 403.
Poor relief, amount of in Indiana, 404.
Press, responsibility of, 4.
Prevention of Cruelty to Children, Society for 340.
Prince Edward's Island, report from, 372.
Prison-made goods, 312.
Prison methods, variety of, 19.
Prisoners' Aid Association, Texas, 361.
Prisoners' Aid Society, Colorado, 297.
Prisons and reformatories, 65.
Private institutions, usefulness of, 228.
Private patients, revenue from, 401.
Private relief, 141.
Progress in reformatories, 188.
Prostitution, girls sought for, 239.
Protection of children, act for Massachusetts, 324.
Public and private charities in Mexico, 381.
Public Ledger, quotation from, 42.
Public policy in care of insane, 83.

Quadrennial sessions of legislature, 33.
Quebec, report from, 370.
Quincy, Josiah, 136.

Race conference, 292, 294.
Randall, C. D., 233, 234.
Randall's Island, 421.
Receiving home for children, 349.
Records not kept in Kentucky jails, 290.
Reform school, children in, 412.
Reformation of girls through industry, 214.
Reformatories, 188.
Reformatory: for colored boys, 289; for white youths, 365.
"Relation of Philanthropy to Social Order and Progress," 6.
"Relief and Support of the Poor," Laws of 1862, 125.
Reports: of committee on time and place, 413; of committee on organization, 437.
Rescue mission for outcast boys, 359.
Resolutions: of sympathy with Mr. Hart, 394; in memory of deceased members, 445; on convict labor, 451; of thanks, 445, 452.
Rhode Island, report from, 354.
Richmond, Miss M. E., 323.
Rights of children, 322.
Riis, Jacob, 159.
Roll of Honor badge, 207.
Roosevelt, Governor, 159, 343.
Rose Polytechnic Institute, 189.
Rowe, Leo S., 110.
Rules for placing out children, 242.
Rural districts, degeneration in, 115.

Sanatorium for consumptives, 339.
Sanitation, lack of in country, 120.
Santiago Hill, 194.
School directors, occupations of, 40.
School of Trades, 386.
Science, limitation of, 12.
"Scientific Charity," 12.
Scofield mining disaster, 291.
Scott, Ida J., 74.
Seguin, Dr. Edwin, 80.
Separation in jails, 54.
Separation of children from parents, 228.
Separation of sexes in almshouses, 153.
Sermon, 10.
Shakespeare Almshouse, 320.

Sheriffs, speeches of, 436.
Shooting craps, 117.
Shuttleworth, Dr. J. E., 73.
Sick poor, provision for, 358.
Sick relief, 407.
Silver Cross Home, 78.
Sloyd in school for feeble-minded, 328.
Sloyd work, 191.
Smith, Stephen, 86.
Social degeneration in towns and rural districts, 115.
Social order, promotion of, 1.
Soldiers' Home, session at, 447.
South Carolina, report from, 356.
South Dakota, report from, 360.
Spencer, Herbert, quotations from, 3, 106.
Spoils doctrine, the, 35.
Spoils system, iniquity of, 34.
Stanley, William E., 311.
State boards, 167, 182, 287, 417.
State care of insane, 300, 400.
State care of insane *versus* state custody, 93.
State Conference of Charity in New Hampshire, 287.
State conferences, 8.
State charities law, New York, 340.
State Home and Industrial School for Girls, 295.
State public schools, 230, 231.
States, reports from, 286.
Statistics of state boards, 174.
Steel jails, 435.
Streeter, Mrs. F. S., 333.
Strong, Major Frank, 66.
Summer playground, 355.
Summer school in philanthropic work, 247, 344, 407.
Sunday observance, 4.
Superintendents and employees, 211.
Supervisors of public charities, Baltimore, 323.
Suspended sentence, 435.

Taylor, Bishop, 272.
Temperance workers' neglect of best methods, 373.
Tenement House Committee, 342.
Tenement house exhibit, 101, 342.
Tenements described, 162.
Tennessee kindergartens, 245.
Texas: care of epileptics in, 77; report from, 361.
"The Man with the Hoe," 276.
The Quarterly Review, 345.
Theological controversies, 24.
Topeka, Reform School of, 312.
Township poor relief, 402, 403.
Trades for boys, 423.
Train robbery in Iowa, 309.
Tramps, new species of, 123.
Travelling libraries, 337.
Tuberculosis: home for those suffering from, 296; hospital for treatment of, 339.
Twentieth century, 25.

Unfit, the, saving of, 3.
United States penitentiaries, 67.
United States prison, 450.
Utah, report from, 363.

Vacant lots, cultivation of, 355.
Vacation school: for feeble-minded, 74; in Rhode Island, 355.
Vermont, report from, 364.
Virginia: care of epileptics in, 79; report from, 364.
Visiting agencies established by state authority, 230.
Visitors for children placed out, 238.

Warner, A. G., 76, 109, 110.
Warner, Dr. Francis, 72.
Wednesday Club to inquire into industrial occupations for women, 329.
West Virginia: care of epileptics in, 79; Children's Home Society, 289; report from, 366; reform in, 366.
White, Dr. F. S., 77.
Wilson, George S., 289.
Wilson, Woodrow, 109.
Wines, E. C., 435.
Wines, F. H., 10.
Wisconsin: care of epileptics, 78; Reform School, 421.
Woman's Club, Denver, 297.
Woman's Exchange, 358.
Women's Prison Association, 342.
Workhouses, 48.

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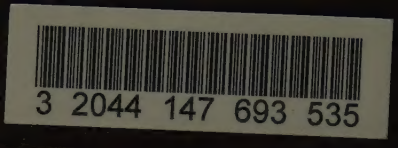
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